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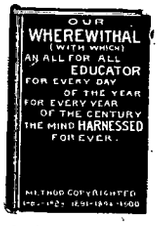

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 22, 1903.

The Week.

President Roosevelt, according to the dispatches from Washington, is facing a grave disagreement in his Cabinet. The report of Charles J. Bonaparte and Holmes Conrad on the postal scandals seriously reflects on both the Treasury and the Post-Office Department, and practically calls for the resignation of Robert J. Tracewell, Comptroller of the Treasury. Of course, Mr. Payne and Mr. Shaw object; and Mr. Tracewell is rallying the whole Indiana influence to support him. The difficulty is that, in choosing investigators, the President went "outside the official family," and picked an Independent Republican and a Gold Standard Democrat—"two mugwumps." They acted without regard to private or political interests, and purely on the assumption that the post-office business is public business; while the two Cabinet members take the common official attitude that the Government is run for the benefit of office-holders and their friends, and that the man who disturbs them is interfering in private matters. Of course, Mr. Roosevelt cannot for a moment give in to the views of Messrs. Payne and Shaw. In these postal scandals he has put his hand to the plough, and he cannot look back. He appointed Mr. Bonaparte and Mr. Conrad simply in order to get an unbiassed report. If they find Mr. Tracewell at fault, President Roosevelt is the last man in the country to help shield him. Indeed, the situation offers the President a happy issue out of some of his troubles. The most inefficient and irresponsible member of his Cabinet has, by common agreement, been the Postmaster-General; and next in order has come Secretary Shaw. If President Roosevelt lets them go, he will gain far more in public approval than he can lose through the defection of their private following. But, gain or lose, his course is clear.

The action of the Civil Service Commission in demanding the reinstatement of five employees in the Philadelphia mint who were removed solely for political reasons, is no more surprising than Commissioner Cooley's report that Philadelphia has the worst-managed Federal offices in the country. Naturally, since the bosses' word has been law in regard to the appointments of their heads. It appears that the irregularities pointed out by the Philadelphia Civil Service Association in its last annual report have become more flagrant than ever. Mr. Cooley declares that "Men have been removed from classified positions without any cause whatever, and nobody cares to give any explanation of how or why it was done." This is precisely what was to have been looked for under the circumstances. An these scandals may be expected to crop out in every place where political reasons have obtained in the appointment of postmasters or heads of departments. The situation in Philadelphia has been so notoriously bad that President Roosevelt owes to himself and the public service a thoroughgoing series of removals from office and the severe punishment of all offenders.

As far as the navy estimates are concerned, Secretary Moody proves himself to be a more pliable official than his recent Republican predecessors. He has not only followed his chief, President Roosevelt, in his large-navy ideas, but has apparently been taken into camp by the extreme imperialist officers. For the year 1904-1905, he would have this country expend the enormous sum of $103,000,000 for the support and increase of its war fleet—$72,000,000 more than in 1893, when the navy was still in the process of reconstruction. Now it is larger and stronger than at any time in the peace history of the United States, and still the insensate cry is for more men, more ships, and more guns. To judge by Secretary Moody, a visiting Martian might think this country in the Middle Ages, surrounded by hostile neighbors, and threatened with wars lasting thirty years. Instead, the country is by nature happy and law-abiding, and devoted to the arts of peace, except for a few politicians, shipbuilders, and naval officers. Where to-day is the enemy who menaces our shores? What nation has a fleet capable of attacking our coasts save our cousins, the English, with whom we are on better terms than ever? Who can maintain that our fleet as it stands to-day is built for defensive purposes merely? It has long since passed that stage, and has become a growing menace to our peace and prosperity. Should Mr. Moody's estimates be accepted by Congress, we shall be paying two-thirds as much as England does, with her vast battle fleets. Are we aiming to rival her in the mad race to throw away millions on death-dealing instruments?

Mr. Samuel Gompers has given the employers of labor to understand that there must be no cutting of wages in the event of an industrial setback. At the meeting of the Civic Federation on Saturday he said: "If the time comes to suggest to the employer the advisability of cutting or making an attempt to cut wages, it will be disputed by us. We will not let that go easily. We will make a stand against it, not only because it is uneconomic and unwise, but because it simply accentuates the industrial crisis, and gives it greater strength." If the American Federation of Labor, of which Mr. Gompers is the head, maintains this attitude through thick and thin, the consequences may conceivably be unpleasant. His assertion that a cut in wages would be uneconomic is entitled to very little consideration. If general business slackens materially, producers will reduce prices, despite the fulminations of labor organizations, and this means, of course, that the cost of production must be curtailed. But an early step in this direction must be a lowering of the wage scale. The reasons are plain. In the first place, economy in this direction is more quickly and easily initiated than in any other. A manufacturer cannot effect at will a lowering in the cost of his raw materials—he has to wait for the world's market to do that for him. And it is also impossible for him to force an immediate reduction in transportation charges, interest rates, rentals, etc. But he can move promptly and effectively in the matter of labor, and that is the reason why a lowering of wages or a reduction in the number of the employed is always apt to mark the beginning of a period of industrial depression. Already, in fact, the railroads have begun to cut wages and to lay off hands, and there has also been a certain amount of closing down in the steel industry.

Mr. John Mitchell, at the Chicago meeting of the National Civic Federation, discussed very interestingly the open shop, and union compulsion of employers and non-unionists. He properly held that organized labor has a right to work with the associates it likes, or to refuse to work. But he maintained also a right of "compulsion" as against employers and non-unionists, which he did not define, but admitted was a stage more vigorous than "persuasion." Of this compulsion, he said it "must be judged on its merits, and must not be decried simply because it is compulsion." We have no desire to follow Mr. Mitchell in verbal quibbles, and so, admitting his premises that union coercion must be judged on its merits, we call his attention to compulsion as it actually exists. It means in practically all cases violence. Open rioting and murder were Mr. Mitchell's potent allies in the anthracite strike. What does he think of the merits of that form of compulsion? In Chicago the right to compel non-union teamsters meant the right to beat them senseless; in New York the compulsion

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applied to independent housesmiths was the breaking of their ribs by Sam Parks's "Entertainment Committee." These are examples of union compulsion as it actually is to-day. Hair-splitting Mr. Mitchell need have no fear that it will not be judged "on its merits."

It is reported that Walking Delegate Farley has confessed to Mr. Jerome the whole story of recent blackmailing operations in the building trades. The confession incriminates Farley himself, Sam Parks, and McCarthy. Scores of hold-ups are revealed, and the evidence for many indictments is supplied. Mr. Jerome felt sure of convicting Parks and McCarthy without Farley's assistance. The value of the reported revelations, then, is not that they hasten the condemnation of this nest of blackmailers; it lies rather in the effect that the exposure is likely to have upon the workmen in the building trades. When these laborers see clearly the methods and the results of government by Sam Parks, when they perceive the shamelessness with which he debauched every principle of honest unionism, we are confident that they will repudiate him indignantly. Having cleansed the inner rottenness of their organization, they will be likely to listen to President Gompers as he advocates the arbitration plan. A prompt acceptance of this treaty between employers and employed would ensure, in part at least, the restoration of the building industry. Further delay will mean lack of employment through the winter and great suffering among what was formerly our most prosperous class of workmen.

Last week's testimony in the Shipbuilding case brought to public knowledge the memorandum of "bonuses" set aside for promoters. This became a topic of particular interest when Mr. Gates, last year, disclaimed on the witness stand any knowledge of the $26,000,000 of the Steel and Wire Trust's $90,000,000 stock which had "disappeared" in the promotion. What inquisitive people have long wanted were details as to the method of showering new stock upon promoters; and in the Shipbuilding testimony we get them. Nine millions of the bonds were to be sold for cash—three millions in the United States and six millions "in France and England." The "French and English" figures will chiefly attract attention because of the wide advertisement given a fortnight ago to the methods of the promoters. Every one has been asking, What did the brilliant negotiators get for their labors with Rogniat, Major Spilsbury, and the rest? We are not informed what was actually received. What was contemplated is shown by the "memorandum." For the finding of foreign customers for $6,000,000 Shipbuilding bonds, the promoters were to get $133,000 cash, $700,000 in bonds, and $3,600,000 in preferred and common stock. After making these allowances, the "memorandum" figures out that there would be left over for other outlay on "promotion" and "commissions on underwriting" the tidy amount of $750,000 bonds, $3,900,000 stock, and $67,000 cash.

Workers for clean government in this city have reason for good cheer in a survey of the field. The completed registration is, at least, satisfactory. To say that it alone settles the doom of Tammany would be foolish. We have seen too many elections triumphantly won by the registration, only to be miserably lost by the actual fall of the ballots. Ingenious analysts, it will be remembered, figured out of the registration an infallible Tammany defeat both in 1890 and in 1897. It is enough to say, at present, that the number of enrolled voters furnishes good ground for encouragement. If the final registration had remained at the low level of the first two days, we should have considered the odds desperately against us. As it is, the material of victory is evidently in hand, provided that the canvass from now on be such as to compel it The situation does not warrant jubilation as if the fight were all over, but only that hope and fresh courage which lead to redoubled efforts. More than from a large and probably adverse registration is Tammany's cause suffering from loss of prestige and a panicky leadership. The Wigwam is obviously ill at ease. The rank and file are muttering and apprehensive. They do not know what blunder Murphy will make next, what will be the next damning record to leap to light. The reports we get from every-day Tammany supporters indicate their deep disgust at the way things have gone. Murphy's *coup* in kidnapping Grout they speak of as a *coup de grâce* for the organization. McClellan they flippantly refer to as "a dead one." Aside from such internal rumblings of discontent, the outward front of Tammany betrays its disquietude. It has no taking catchwords. It is more apologetic than aggressive. The claims which it makes are riddled as promptly as the lies it circulates are nailed to the counter. With a formidable revolt of "regular" Brooklyn Democrats on its hands, Tammany feebly protests that national issues are solidifying the party in order to carry the Presidential election next year.

After an impartial trial, lasting fifteen days, James H. Tillman, the slayer of N. G. Gonzales, editor of the Columbia (S. C.) *State*, has been triumphantly acquitted. This is as gross a miscarriage of justice as has ever been witnessed in any part of the Union. The facts in the case are perfectly plain; they were brought out by the State with the greatest care. But, after an overnight deliberation, a jury of his peers has declared the former Lieutenant-Governor innocent of any crime. Its members have thereby served notice on their fellow-citizens that it is sufficient defence for the most dastardly kind of homicide to prove that the victim had attacked his slayer in the public press. It is a notification to all South Carolina editors that they must refrain from criticising any low blackguard in public life unless they wish to pay for their utterances with their lives. At the very moment when the South is clamoring to be let alone and allowed to work out its own destiny, one of its sovereign States is stamped by its own citizens as a commonwealth in which unjustifiable murder goes unpunished and homicide is encouraged.

Under the present Constitution of Alabama the only voters have been those who had been registered under a temporary plan. That ceased to operate on the first of last January, but under it there were registered 188,000 white life voters and only 2,000 blacks, if we may rely upon the Montgomery *Advertiser's* figures. A new election law has now been passed, and under it some 60,000 more whites will receive the suffrage; what is to become of the blacks is not stated. A few more may be admitted—if the boards of registration see fit. Meanwhile, there is some encouragement in the case of Peter Crenshaw, of which the *Advertiser* rightly thinks Northern critics should take note. Crenshaw is a negro politician of some repute, and is also an army veteran. The Limestone County registration board refused to register him because he could not produce his army discharge papers. When he obtained copies from Washington the board again arbitrarily refused to give him the suffrage, and he appealed to the Circuit Court. The case was tried before a jury of twelve white men, the State's defence being based on technicalities, and the jury promptly found for Crenshaw, declaring that he was entitled to registration as a life voter. The case has been appealed to the Supreme Court. While it is noteworthy as being the only one to go before a jury, it is also a striking example of the inevitable acts of injustice resulting from giving a board of white men the right to say whether colored American citizens, fully qualified under the law, shall or shall not vote.

It would be unsafe to generalize regarding the financial situation from the Baltimore trust-company failures. They certainly indicate that the "mobilization of credits" has not proved as effective as was predicted. But the important fact is, that the situation in Baltimore has

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for a long time past been unique. The methods employed have been extreme, and have occasioned a great deal of criticism, both at home and abroad. Commitments of capital were made on a scale and in a manner to excite the surprise and reprobation of the banking community of the entire East. Baltimore has simply paid the penalty of over-competition in banking. It has multiplied its financial institutions beyond its real needs, with the result that it has been tempted, as is so often the case in those circumstances, to employ large amounts of funds in outside ventures of a tentative character. It is not the only city in the United States that has had this experience in the last few years, but it is a capital instance. Steam railroads in Mexico and undeveloped parts of the United States, street railways in the South, breweries, real estate, and other slow assets have absorbed its money. Baltimore has also been heavily involved in industrial ventures of an experimental nature, its losses in connection with the International Mercantile Marine Company being notorious. The difference between Baltimore and other leading financial centres of late has been that, whereas New York and Boston have, like Baltimore, been caught with large holdings of unsold securities, these have been of a class that could be much more easily marketed at a price than those of the former city. In a word, Baltimore is not a fair criterion of the rest of the country.

Certain diverse features of the international financial situation admit of a common explanation. The decline of both high-grade and purely speculative securities in this country, the forced liquidation of powerful interests in the stock market, the collapse of a long series of industrial combines, and the threatened reduction of dividends on the securities of still others, may be correlated with the great drop in British consols, the general downward tendency of the London stock market for a long time past, the anxiety with which each settlement day is approached in that centre of finance, the additional safeguarding from time to time recently of the gold supplies of the European banks, and possibly last week's statement of the Bank of France. These phenomena point unmistakably to a world-wide contraction of credit, the first evidences of which were observed in Germany in 1900. Omitting mention of secondary causes, we get back to the fact that credits have apparently been expanded out of proportion to the gold supply of the world, on which they are based. The "capitalizing of the future" of American industries was one form of this movement. Another was the great rise in commodity prices, which necessitated a larger amount of credits to transact the same volume of business. We must also add the great increase in bond issues (both railroad and municipal), the vast enlargement of general business, and the extensive speculation in Western lands.

It looks as if not only Great Britain, but the rest of the world as well, were now paying the penalty of the Boer war. The enormous expansion of the gold output of the world from a yearly average of $162,974,200 in 1891-1895 to $306,724,100 in 1899 furnished the basis for a great enlargement of credits, and, on the strength of this "boom," enlargement speedily went forward, both in Europe and in the United States. The effect of the closing of the South African mines in 1899 was not immediately apparent; the impetus previously gained was sufficient to prolong the expansion of credits for a good many months. Danger signals began, however, to appear in Europe in 1900, and in this country in 1901. These warnings were not generally heeded, and in a sense they could not be; for capital had been so generally converted from a floating to a fixed basis that a wide curtailment of credit was not immediately possible without a sudden and drastic effect upon international financial and industrial conditions. However, for a year at least in this country, and for a good many months in Great Britain, the process of retrenchment has been going on. The highest grades of securities—that is, the ones most easily disposed of—have been liquidated in an almost unprecedented manner, and recently inflated industrial shares have been obliged to seek a market for what they would bring. When this stage is reached, the indications always are that the real corrective of the situation is being applied.

Criticism of Elijah the Restorer in New York seems superfluous, because he has passed judgment upon himself. His intemperate language, his random imputations of vice, his pettishness before discomfiture due to his own defects of oratory, stamp him definitely as the charlatan, did not his list of securities for investment suggest a more sinister character. He lacks serious credentials. It looks as though he would be chaffed out of town. That has never before happened in New York city to any sincere religious movement, however grotesque its methods. Dowie seems to lack the conviction of a religious leader. The shrewd good sense of this town has refused to consider him as anything but the promoter of Zion City. Only recall in how different a spirit the Salvation Army came to New York. They began to lodge the poor and preach to them; the women glorified menial service in the tenements. One has only to compare that movement with Dowie's well-advertised spectacular entry to see the difference between the real and the sham thing.

What the Duke of Devonshire has lost through tardiness he atones for in consistency. Having resigned from the Cabinet, he now accepts the Presidency of the Unionist Free Food League, and takes his stand as the opponent of Messrs. Chamberlain and Balfour on the fiscal matter. In accepting the office, the Duke of Devonshire significantly suggests that the League may wish to "broaden its operations," and reminds the Secretary, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, that as yet the new President will engage to go in opposition only on the protection issue. This is pretty clear indication that the Duke expects that the opposition to the champions of the fiscal reforms will become general, and that the Unionist Free Food League, which for the present he regards as "a parliamentary committee," may at any time become a genuine party of secession. Such certainly is a fair inference from his guarded words of acceptance and from the situation itself. An element of strength is added to the Opposition by this frank declaration of the Duke of Devonshire, while the discrepancy between the large professions of the Chamberlainites and the personal abilities commanded by them becomes more glaring than ever.

The followers of Mr. Chamberlain have every reason to be disappointed by Lord Rosebery's Sheffield speech. The fact that he has now committed himself so vigorously to free trade after having last May said that he did not regard free trade "as a part of the Sermon on the Mount," will probably be paraded as an evidence of shiftiness. It is not necessarily open to that construction. Mr. Chamberlain's fiscal departure came as a great surprise. Free trade and protection were subjects to which the present generation of British statemen had not been compelled to give serious thought, and it is not astonishing that the savage attack on the existing system should for the moment have thrown Lord Rosebery into confusion regarding the true philosophy of tariffs. He now sees the viciousness of Mr. Chamberlain's attitude, not only from the economic but also from the moral point of view. Previous speakers have pointed out as clearly as Lord Rosebery the weak points in Mr. Chamberlain's programme, but his mastery of the art of discourse makes his Sheffield speech perhaps the most effective utterance so far against a change in the fiscal policy of the nation. The true need of Great Britain, provided it is in a declining state, is, in the opinion of Lord Rosebery, to "cultivate a scientific spirit and better education, and, above all, keep the universe for a reservoir of food and raw material."

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THE ALASKA DECISION.

The Alaska Boundary Commission has arrived at a settlement favorable to the American contention; but not unanimously. The Canadian members were unmoved by the opposing arguments. Lord Alverstone, on the other hand, was convinced that the *lisière* conceded by Russia to the United States is an unbroken strip of coast stretching from Portland Channel to Mount St. Elias. In one small particular what has been called a compromise was arrived at. The Commission had no power actually to draw the boundary line. It merely passed upon certain questions, such as, What inlet did the Russians understand by Portland Channel? Is there a chain of mountains parallel to the coast which may serve as the natural frontier contemplated by the Anglo-Russian treaty? In case there is not, should the arbitrary line "parallel to the coast and following its windings," be reckoned from tidewater, and thus be wholly inland; or, being described parallel to an imaginary line drawn from headland to headland, should it cut the deeper tidal inlets? Under these conditions, a compromise finding would mean only that neither party should obtain a favorable answer to all these questions. Canada gets a decision at the southern end of the line. We lose the advantage of a foothold on navigable waters at this point, and Canada gains two small islands which command the approach to Port Simpson, the projected terminus of the Grand Trunk extension. It will probably appear, when the actual survey is made, that the fixing of a mountain boundary at several points—especially at the head of Lynn Canal—will give to Canada small portions of territory at the expense of our extreme claim of a strip invariably ten leagues wide. But these are all minor features of the award. In the main issue—the granting of an unbroken coast strip—the decision is distinctly a victory for the United States.

Much of the credit for this fortunate result belongs to the advocates for this nation, Mr. Watson and Mr. Dickinson; and a very gratifying feature of the whole proceedings is that the weight of the argument was borne, not by seasoned experts in international law, but by comparatively unknown lawyers, with their national reputation to make. Mr. Dickinson's elaborate argument on the *lisière* won earnest congratulations from Lord Alverstone, and all the counsel for the United States showed patient research, brilliancy in presentation, and a firm grasp of the underlying principles that should rule in a very complicated dispute. We take the immediate rise of Messrs. Watson and Dickinson to international eminence as a sign of the unutilized supply of talent in the nation. One of our chief problems is that of enlisting in the Government service abilities such as these two lawyers have shown they possess.

Of course, these gentlemen had very much the better side of the case. It weakened the Canadian contention from the outset that their advocates were unwilling to rest the case upon any single principle of international law. They argued astutely the headland to headland theory, which had some theoretical strength, but they were equally willing to draw the line along the summits of the coast mountains, creating a "chain" *ad hoc*. Obviously both arguments could hardly be right. Furthermore, in the light of the evident intention of Russia to cede an unbroken coast strip, the whole Canadian protest bore a belated look. The United States was in possession. No serious complaint had been made until the discovery of gold in the back country. All this gave our counsel a marked initial advantage. It is to their credit that they never presumed upon the situation, but handled the case purely as a matter of equity and of reasonable construction of the treaty.

As to Canadian comments upon the matter, we greatly regret the bitterness of the tone towards Lord Alverstone, and we find the detection of Mr. Chamberlain's hand in the decision nothing less than absurd. Lord Alverstone's character does not admit the supposition that he was guided by timid prudential considerations, while Mr. Chamberlain would, in principle, rather cut off his right hand than alienate a square rod of the Empire. We see no defence for the refusal of the two Canadian Commissioners to sign the decision, when they had at hand the regular means of protest, a minority report. For the moment, their withdrawal from the conference is likely to exacerbate Canadian irritability, but we are confident that reflection will bring fair-mindedness, and that the Canadians will admit that they were squarely beaten in open argument, and that Lord Alverstone's conversion was highly honorable to him. The Canadians have failed to make good a rather preposterous claim, which has secured for them, however, a substantial rectification of the boundary off Port Simpson. They never had the slightest reason to suppose that their extreme pretensions would be granted by any tribunal, and they have, at the worst, merely lost what they never had. On our side, too, there will be no unseemly exultation over the decision. It was inevitable that our claim to the coast strip, supported as it was alike by documentary evidence and common sense, should be fully allowed. Everybody, on both sides, has reason to rejoice that an old occasion of irritation has been removed. After a decent interval the Joint High Commission should be reassembled to consider, with a reciprocity treaty, the few remaining matters in dispute between the United States and Canada.

THE TEST OF THE PRESIDENT.

It is live and learn, in the matter of the actual operation of American government; and we are just now taught by the goings on at Washington something to be had from no text-book or lecture. We are shown, in a word, that Senators are bent upon usurping one more prerogative of the Executive. They long ago took over his appointing power. Latterly they have been asserting that the right to negotiate treaties is theirs, not his. Now they are moving upon another fortress of Presidential privilege, or duty—a duty that goes to the heart of his function as one sworn to execute the laws. We mean his obligation to enforce discipline in the public service; to keep its personnel efficient and honest; and to make an example of every detected rogue. The new Senatorial gloss put upon this essential obligation of a vigorous and high-minded Executive is, "First ask us. Before you dismiss a rascal, consider well his 'influence.'"

Last week, for example, President Roosevelt summarily removed a United States marshal in Vermont. The officer's gross negligence was unquestioned. He had brought discredit upon the service as well as himself, and the President promptly took off his head, as a terror to evil-doers. But the real terror is a Senator whose patronage is interfered with, and that portent immediately appeared at the White House. Senator Proctor was down upon the President instanter, wanting to know how a "man" of his could be turned out of office and *he* not consulted. He may not have put his demand in exactly that language, but that was the practical upshot. Call no office-holder a scoundrel until you have asked permission of his Senator. Mr. Proctor's labors with the President resulted in the humiliating announcement from the White House on Monday that Mr. Roosevelt had decided to "investigate further" the case of the removed marshal.

We call this action humiliating because, in any aspect, it tends to degrade the Presidency. How can the Chief Magistrate make his punishments exemplary if they are subject to recall or modification through Senatorial dictation? If President Roosevelt was too hasty, and proceeded upon inadequate information, in dismissing the Vermont marshal, that was a blunder which stands by itself, and should be confessed as such; but to give it out that the case is to be reconsidered "at the request of Senator Proctor," is to cut the nerve of executive energy and to reduce the President to the contemptible position of a Mayor of the Palace, taking orders from his real masters. Senators tell him, in effect: "It is not for you to say

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that officials are inefficient and corrupt, and must be removed for the good of the service. That is our affair, and you are to go on doing as you are bid. Leave all the rest, including your reëlection, to us."

A similar ominous temper is displayed in the last stages of the postal scandal. When President Roosevelt named two gentlemen of ability and character to probe the rottenness to the bottom, a chorus of approval went up from the party press: There, you see the determination of a Republican Administration to cleanse the service; no guilty man shall be allowed to escape. But, bless you, no sooner had Messrs. Bonaparte and Conrad brought in their report than the Republican managers began to thrill with consternation and rage. What! let two miserable Mugwumps recommend the dismissal of good Republican office-holders! Senators were at once discerned on the horizon. They flapped indignantly down upon Washington, asking angrily what all this meant. An investigation was one thing—that was all very well to throw dust in the people's eyes; but a thorough report, exposing Republicans in office—come, come, that was too much! Did the President want to put Indiana in the doubtful column? Did he think he could get along without the electoral vote of Iowa? Supposing there had been a few irregularities, had not the beneficiaries all been Republicans, and was not this a Republican Administration?

The point we make is, that here we see the way in which corruption entrenches itself in the public service, even when an honest and clean-handed President endeavors to expel it. The attempt is to frighten and fetter the Executive. No one doubts Mr. Roosevelt's sincere intention to drive out the malingerers and the conspirators, the looters and the peculators. He meant business when he told Messrs. Bonaparte and Conrad to strike deep, without fear or favor. But to the Senatorial mind the whole thing was a pretence from the beginning. Imagine Senator Beveridge really wanting any of his incompetent appointees in the Federal service, from his father-in-law down, turned out in the public interest! On the contrary, he and his colleagues fill the air with their cries, and tell the newspapers that President Roosevelt will pitch the wretched Mugwump report out of the window. Even the *Tribune's* Washington dispatches are filled with smooth words about the President's not being disposed to insist, in the face of the protests of the Indiana Senators; and about Postmaster-General Payne having successfully shielded this incriminated employee, and Secretary Shaw having saved the other. This we cannot believe. If there is anything President Roosevelt stands for it is pure administration. If there is one power he cannot surrender, it is that of a fearless and honest Executive, determined upon unearthing and routing out every thieving band that may have found a hiding-place in the departments. He cannot for a moment allow it to appear that his inquiry was a farce. The issue is full upon him, and will prove a test not only of his character, but of his willingness to maintain the prestige of his great office. If the President must stay his hand simply because Senators intervene to protect their pet rascals, it is all up with honest government.

THE SOUTHERN (NOT THE NEGRO) QUESTION.

One-half of the entire negro population of the country is concentrated in the six contiguous States of South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. These States compare not meanly with some of the greatest countries in the world, not only in their superficial extent, but in their agricultural, mineral, manufacturing, and commercial possibilities. Their combined area is upwards of 286,000 square miles, or about two-fifths more than that of the European possessions of either the German Empire or the French Republic. Extending as they do through ten degrees of latitude and fifteen of longitude, they have within themselves many diversities of surface, climate, and natural products. Much of their soil is very fertile. Very nearly every important agricultural product of temperate or subtropical climes can be profitably raised in one portion or another of their extensive territory. They produce more than one-third of all the cotton the world consumes. Their mountains are filled with coal, iron, and limestone. Their forests are great and valuable. In the many streams flowing from their hills and mountains they have a vast water power. Their climate is so mild that man may comfortably live there more cheaply than he can farther North; but it is, in many portions of them at least, not warm enough to relax materially, if at all, the energies of the laborer. Their coast line, both upon the Gulf of Mexico and the open Atlantic, is of great extent, and is broken by a sufficiency of good harbors. Their surface is traversed or pierced by many navigable rivers, among them the Mississippi itself. They are still but thinly peopled, having in 1900 less than thirty-two inhabitants to the square mile. Only one of the thirty-eight cities of the country with a population of one hundred thousand or upwards is within them. They have only one town of over eight thousand inhabitants for every ten thousand square miles of their area, while Massachusetts has thirty-three such on its eight thousand square miles. Much progress has been made by these States in the last few years, and yet very little has been accomplished compared with what their natural advantages show may still be done. In 1900 their manufacturing capital was only $46 per head of their inhabitants, as against a per-capita manufacturing capital of $139 in the rest of the country. Agriculture is still far and away their principal occupation, and still the value of their farm property averages but $115 per head of their entire population as compared with $288 in the other States and Territories of the Union.

What is the cause that has thus far held back this great and naturally rich section of the country? Its people have done and are doing much to develop its resources. Outside capital is eager to exploit its natural wealth. What, then, makes the prudent man hesitate to predict for it that magnificent future which would seem assured to it? Its people are not of one race, but of two, and these two are within it substantially equal in numbers. Of its nearly nine million of inhabitants, a trifle more than one-half have negro blood in their veins. There are in these six States as many negroes as were to be found in the entire Union when Abraham Lincoln was first chosen President. The negro inhabitants of these States are one and a half times as numerous as were all the dwellers, white, red, and black, in the thirteen colonies when they declared their independence of Great Britain. What changes in the relative proportion of their two races the future may have in its keeping, it is not possible with any confidence to forecast. Forty years ago the whites outnumbered the blacks by 32,000; twenty years ago there were 243,000 more blacks than whites, and now there are only 25 000 more. While on the whole it seems probable that the tendency which has manifested itself in the last twenty years rather than that which exhibited itself between 1860 and 1880 will in the future prevail, no one can be certain about it. One thing, however, is sure—for many decades, and probably for many centuries, the negro inhabitants of these States will be numbered by millions. In 1900 their negro population was more than double what it had been forty years before. Since 1880 the number of negro emigrants from the region under discussion has exceeded considerably the number of immigrants to it, and yet its negro population has increased in the meanwhile by 39 per cent.

Human nature being what it is, a community in which the population is divided not very unequally between two distinct races is, other things being equal, at a disadvantage as compared with another in which there is no such division. This is true where the two races are as closely allied as Czech and German, and where language is the principal and perhaps the only badge of dis-

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tinction. Where the two races are separated by as wide a physical gulf as divides the Caucasian and the negro, the resulting loss of effective strength in the community as a whole will be much greater. There would be much race friction even if the two races were, morally and mentally, substantially equal. There will be still more when one race, whether because of racial peculiarities or as a result of the operation of historical causes, is on the average, morally and mentally, markedly inferior to the other. The overwhelming majority of the white men of the South believe that the negro as a race is incapable of attaining to the moral and intellectual level to which the white race may ascend. If they are right, the South will fall far short of making as much of its resources as will be made by the other sections of the country out of such natural advantages as they may have. In the long run it is men, rather than things, which tell. If it be true that the average negro not only is not, but never can be, as valuable a member of the community as the average white man, it is still of enormous importance to the South that he shall be as useful as it is possible for him under any conditions to become. Nothing else is quite so vital to its future. Its direct interest in the problem of making the negro as high a type of man as he is capable of becoming is far greater than that of the rest of the country, because in large part its own future depends upon the successful solution.

It is easy for one race or people to push down another, and there are many ways of doing it. There is only one way to reverse the process, and in that no one outside of the race which is struggling upwards can be of much help, although it is easy to hinder. Climbing up is a slow and painful process. If a whole race is to be elevated, there must be many weary workers slowly and doggedly struggling upwards. Whether they will so struggle depends upon whether, in their view, the prizes which await them at the top are worth the effort to get there. The future prospects of the South in very large part depend upon its negro population (now in large measure thriftless, immoral and unenlightened) becoming industrious, virtuous, and intelligent. It is going to be very hard for these negroes so to elevate themselves. Can the South afford to say to them, "Strive as you choose, succeed as you can; but, whatever you do, so long as there is a discernible drop of African blood in your veins, you shall never be allowed to obtain many of those things which men of all races and in all ages have most keenly longed for"?

BUBBLES OLD AND NEW.

The young dummy directors who testified on Thursday in the Shipbuilding suit—one of them an incorporator of the notorious Franklin Syndicate swindle—were consistent members of that society of high financiers who have been forming combinations without careful examination of constituent properties, and, just as in the bubbles of two centuries ago, have been asking small investors to put their savings into an absolutely bottomless business. The parallel, indeed, between the recent period of wild speculation and the bubble mania in the early part of the eighteenth century is closer than most of us imagine. While we have talked loudly of forming new precedents, we have been slavishly following the old. We have had a few successful ventures, a few glittering fortunes flaunted in the face of the public, a general rush to buy and a collapse of the market. The story has been often told—by Macaulay, Bagehot, and Lecky; but no modern author has illuminated the situation more clearly than the contemporary journals, *Mist's* and *Applebee's*, when Defoe was writing for them, that keen observer and hard-headed reasoner, who was a generation or two ahead of his time in his grasp of economic principles.

The lucky undertakings and the dazzling display of wealth which touched the imagination of every-day men and turned them into stock gamblers are evident enough in the letters from France in 1719, when John Law was working his miracles there: "There appear nothing but new clothes, new figures, and an infinite number of families raised to new fortunes. They see eight hundred new coaches set up in Paris, and the families enriched purchase new plate, new furniture, and new equipage; so that there is a most prodigious trade there, and money flows like the waters of the Seine." So the news runs on from day to day, and depicts conditions resembling those at the Waldorf-Astoria and other fashionable New York hotels in the hey-day of prosperity—when the newly rich from all parts of the country flocked here to drink champagne and "take a little flyer" in Wall Street. One story in *Mist's Journal* has served as the model for all later tales of the kind. A coachman told his master that he was going to leave service and "live on his own hands." "Well," said the master, "get me another coachman, for I cannot do without." "Sir," replied the man, "that will be very difficult at this time, for I have inquired for some weeks past, and have not been able to get one for myself."

All this exhibition of splendor had its natural effect. The "confluence of strangers" to Paris was "incredible." "Foreigners buy stocks at that rate that if the French gentlemen who first bought—though at the extravagant rate of 1,000 per cent.—do not make their fortunes by selling every subscription which they have one hundred livres upon for a thousand livres profit, it must be their own faults." Merchants from Genoa, Milan, Geneva, London, and "many other places" came in; "so that in time all the French people may have sold out their stock, and so pay their debts with the money which is brought in from other countries." In Paris, then, in 1719, the old trick of unloading on the outsiders was successfully played. The blind pool, too, is no novelty, for when London was fairly seized with the madness, a young man got investors for "a certain subscription, to be made some time or other, they did not know when; to some certain scheme or other, they did not know what; proposed by some person or other, they did not know who; for insurance of ships, etc., they did not know how."

And all this time Mr. Law was the very image of a conservative Wall Street banker who is struggling to check speculation. He "pretends to be surprised at the extravagant rate, and that it is gone beyond his scheme. He never designed strangers should run away with the profits of his undertaking; but, seeing they are willing to pay so dear, he will not obstruct it." Mr. Law's goings and comings were watched and chronicled as if he were an emperor or the head of a twentieth-century underwriting syndicate. People talked of him as reverently as our newspapers talked of our financial leaders: "Nothing is more evident than that Mr. Law has been of an universal service to France; and that by his genius alone he has retrieved the loss of the late long and miserable war, and put the sinking credit of that nation in such a flourishing condition as was never known before. . . . If we consider only the difficulties which he must have surmounted, that alone will show him to be a very great man. And if, on the other hand, we look into his extensive charities, we shall find him equally good and great." The combination of unscrupulous speculator, benefactor of the toiling millions, and eminent philanthropist is highly respectable in its antiquity.

Before the crash came, a few sober people began to ask, "What advantage is it to the nation of Great Britain in general to have things sell for more than they are worth?" "If shares are at market vendible at double the intrinsic value, where must they fall when the price abates?" These "bears," "pessimists," and "prophets of evil," as we should dub them to-day, kept declaring that at last the shareholders would have "only a scrap of paper which entitles them to nothing but dear-bought repentance." These same malicious destroyers of the market—so exactly does the parallel hold—were the very ones who tried to stop the panic when everybody else was frightened. They counselled holding to stocks and "not giving away estates in a

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hurry." When the shares fell "below the probable interest on them," Defoe cautioned London:

"That they who sell their Stock now, lose Estates;
"That they who buy their Stock now, get Estates;
"That they who keep their Stock now, save Estates."

Defoe's conclusion of the whole matter was the same that sane critics have drawn from the experiences of the last four years. "Let us look into our morals. This is the way to bring credit in again and set it upon its legs. Do any of these men think to restore credit when they do not restore the principles of just and fair dealing, on which credit is founded, and by which alone it is established? Were ever credit and knavery consistent with one another?" But in 1721, as in 1903, all this preaching was like locking the barn door after the horse was stolen. A dialogue about the subscriptions in Broad Street, London, might as fitly be spoken in our own Broad Street: "Come, come, my friend, money is but dirt—mere dirt!" "Aye, aye, and it is such dirt as you and I have washed our hands of very clean at present."

MARTYRDOM OF THE HOUSEWIFE.

The difficulty of securing domestic help is not new, and it is not peculiar to New York. A century ago, an English writer, William Fordyce Mavor, in his 'Survey of Berkshire,' remarked pathetically: "It is greatly to be lamented that good servants every year become more scarce and difficult to command." Such also was the complaint of our own grandmothers and mothers; such is the complaint of our wives to-day. It is true, however, that servants are harder to find than for some years past. Housekeepers from one end of Manhattan to the other unite in a chorus of grief, which is echoed from Brooklyn, Staten Island, and the Bronx, from Westchester County and Rockland, and from the whole State of New Jersey. The trouble may be more acute here because population is more congested, but if the newspapers of Philadelphia and Chicago are not deceived, the situation in those cities, and indeed in the whole country, is unusually distressing.

Some of the reasons for the present plight are obvious. There have been and must continue to be certain inherent difficulties in the problem. These have often been pointed out: long and irregular hours, confined and often lonely routine, varying quantities of work, vagaries and caprices of mistresses, and the so-called "social stigma." All these combine to draw women into factory employment, with its fixed hours, opportunities to be on the street in going and coming, congenial companionship while busy, definite tasks, formal rules for conduct, consistent supervision and general independence outside of hours of labor. For the many women to whom the kitchen and its duties are not positively attractive, the factory will always be a strong magnet; and the growth of manufacturing must make even deeper inroads upon domestic service. Various suggestions have been offered for improving conditions, but few or none of the remedies are practicable for people of moderate means, who must continue to meet these inherent difficulties as best they may.

There are, however, some new factors in the reckoning. The demand for the work of women is keener than ever before. With the last decade a number of occupations have opened to them for the first time. Women, for example, are acceptably filling positions as factory inspectors and sanitary officers. Most of these new occupations are above the skill and intelligence of the housemaid, but the women who are drafted into the higher service leave room in other callings for the better class of maids to enter, and thus drain off the household service from the top.

The greatest demand for female labor is due to the era of prosperity. Our manufacturing has expanded enormously. With all our factories running full time and paying high wages, the housekeeper is facing a sharp competition at a desperate disadvantage. To add to her troubles, she must compete also with her own class. A few days ago the New York State Department of Labor, in its quarterly bulletin, declared: "Prosperity is so widely diffused that the servant-keeping class is larger than ever before, and has thus created a demand that exceeds the supply." With families that kept no servant now employing at least one, and wealthier families adding an extra nurse, waitress, or laundress, the unfortunate housewife is ground between the upper millstone of the factory and the lower millstone of her own companions in adversity.

Not only is the demand greater than before, but the supply is smaller. The very prosperity that has enlarged the servant-keeping class has enabled poorer people either to maintain their daughters at home or send them to school; and many girls who in 1893 would have been seeking places, are now living at ease on the abundant earnings of their fathers and brothers. Statistics on this point are not available, but the facts are patent. It is plain, also, that employment at good wages has allowed many young mechanics to marry, and has thus transformed possible housemaids into actual wives. The "steady company" has been much in evidence, and his attentions have still further disturbed our domestic economy.

Some people ask why the enormous immigration of the last few years has not filled up our depleted stock; for generally in times of heavy immigration household servants are comparatively abundant. An examination of the Government returns shows that in the twelve months ending June, 1902, the number of female immigrants was 182,374, and in the next year it was 243,900. With an increase of over 61,000, there ought to be some balm in Gilead for our housekeepers. But unhappily the character of the immigration has not been such as to furnish domestic servants. Of the total number of women for 1903, 9,877 came from Asia and other lands outside of Europe. Moreover, of the 234,023 Europeans a large number are from nations whose modes of life and social conditions unfit women for domestic service in America, without a training that would uproot most of their personal habits. In 1902, some 44,853 came from Austria-Hungary, and in 1903 the flood had risen to 58,027. The figures for Italy are respectively 32,643 and 43,656; and the totals for Portugal, Rumania, Russia, Servia, Spain, and Turkey are 41,429 and 51,118. Making these deductions, we have left from the immigration of 1903 only 81,222 women from the countries that usually send household servants. Of these, 15,225 came from Germany, 8,212 from Norway, 32,600 from the United Kingdom, and 16,220 from Sweden. Many of them, of course, started directly West to settle on the prosperous farms there.

The other day a gushing student of the question suggested that "love is the only hope." Without disparaging the Christian virtues, we may be sure that love will not melt the stony heart of factory wages or immigration statistics. With demand strengthening and supply diminishing, the outlook is not cheerful. The only relief now in sight is from a check upon our prosperity. The fall in prices and curtailment of manufactures that are expected in the near future, will inevitably lessen the demand for female labor both in the factory and in the home, and will as inevitably increase the supply. Meantime the martyrdom of the housekeeper must go on. If it be true, as ancient writers allege, that one of the enjoyments of the righteous in heaven is to see the torments of the damned, then the families which have drawn from the greatest American lottery one or two competent and contented servants should be in the seventh heaven of ecstacy.

MATILDA SERAO IN PALESTINE.

PARIS, October 5, 1903.

Numberless are the books that have been written on the Holy Land. I confess having experienced some astonishment on seeing added to the list of the travellers who have confided to the public their sensations in Palestine the name of the Italian novelist, already famous, Matilda Serao. Of all the modern writers of Italy, Madame Serao is the best known in France. She has a wonderful power of giving life to the heroes and heroines of her novels; she is a real-

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ist *par excellence*, and at the same time she is never vulgar. She surrounds everything with a sort of beauty and light, similar to the beautiful light of her country. She is dramatic to such an extent that it ought to be very easy to transform all her novels into dramas. She has a tender compassion, *à la* Dickens, for humble, suffering, wretched creatures, and makes us feel, better than many sermons, the terrible lot of humanity. How was she to speak of the Holy Land? And how would her impressions compare with those experienced by so many famous writers?

I opened her book, just translated, with the greatest curiosity, and in the pages of her preface I saw at once that her impressions would not be those of the commonplace traveller, whom she thus characterizes: "This inoffensive traveller, sometimes sympathetic in his frivolity, has an extraordinary resemblance to his own luggage, and it would seem that when he comes home again he, too, retires into a corner with the other trunks till he is needed for another journey." She speaks also of another and rarer sort of traveller, who looks everywhere for picturesque lines and colors, who goes through the world as if the world were a mere panorama. "Afterwards," she says, "when he returns in his mind to those pictures which are not bound to each other by a constant thought or by a thread of sentiment, all the pictures get confused; and, once the rapid pleasure of the eyes has ceased, the memories get effaced, and nothing will remain of his long journeys from land to land." Madame Serao had this thread of sentiment she speaks of; she wished to find in Palestine something else than pictures of deserts, of hills, of lakes, of villages; she wished to enter into communication with the very soul of the "sacred country which has seen and heard God."

I must cite her again:

"This soul of Palestine is spread over the clear mornings of Samaria, in the perpetual song of the fountain where the Virgin washed her pure hands, on the shores of the Lake of Gennesaret whose waters bore Jesus, on a tempestuous evening, wherever the Son of God brought his pain or his hope; and each time that the divine palpitation was communicated to my uneasy soul, I tried to fix its memory on paper. I gave to my material emotion the most simple and most personal signification."

These few lines do not exactly give the impression made by Madame Serao's book, or, rather, do not give it wholly; for (and this is the originality of the writer) she is not purely what may be called a sentimentalist—she is at the same time very poetical and extremely realistic. She lives not only in the past, she lives also in the present; and she has not abandoned in Palestine her usual manner, which consists in the most exact and sometimes the most humorous descriptions of the characters that cross her path. At Jericho, for instance, she asks an old Russian woman, in whose house she spends the night, if there are any roses; the old woman brings her one, and, "like a sentimental girl," she puts it carefully away, between two pieces of wool and in a book. On her return, in the evening, to Jerusalem, she sees the doctor of the French Consulate, who asks her:

" 'Well, have you found the rose of Jericho?' 'Yes, I have brought it with me.' 'Very good. You gathered it on the mountain of the Forty Days?' 'I was not under the necessity of making the ascent; I had it from the garden of the house where I spent the night.' 'In a garden? Strange!' murmured the doctor with the tone of scientific men when they have a doubt. 'Strange? Why?' 'Because the flower is found only at a high altitude, and even then very seldom. Will you show it to me?' "

She showed the rose in the book. "It is not the rose of Jericho." "What is it, then?" "It is a simple May rose; you must have a thousand of them in Naples." "But this one comes from Jericho!" The doctor gave her the scientific definition of the rose of Jericho, and delivered a lecture on roses, finally making her a present of the real rose of Jericho. To Madame Serao it seemed sufficient that a rose should come *from* Jericho to be the rose of Jericho; but the realist in the poet had to be satisfied in turn.

In the city of Jaffa, famous in all Syria for its monasteries and churches, Madame Serao describes amusingly mine host of the Jerusalem Hotel: "He is a hotel-keeper, but also a first-rate Christian, a moralist, a philosopher; he does not deign to speak to his guest." On the doors of the rooms are inscribed, instead of numbers, the names of a patriarch, prophet, or great personage of the Old Testament. "There were on my landing Abraham, Jacob, Ezekiel, Elias chambers." On a table in each room are to be found copies of a work, a treatise on morals, by this singular hotel-keeper—copies in English, in German, in Italian, with a symbolic cover design representing all the beasts of the Apocalypse. One day the author asked Madame Serao if she was married. "Yes," she said, with some surprise. "Then read my book." The next day he asked her severely: "Have you read, and have you understood?" "I hope so," she answered. A few days afterward he gave her a copy for her husband.

It is quite natural to find in Palestine people of all nationalities, and Madame Serao describes very graphically the contrasts which result from these curious meetings. She had spent a night at the inn of Mount Carmel and took a coach to go to Nazareth, a plain *char-à-bancs*, mounted on very high wheels in order to cross the fords. There were ten places in it. The coachman, proprietor of the coach, was a Prussian named Suss; he owned three such coaches; but took the reins himself only for people whom he considered of some importance. Among the travellers was Father Marcel de Noilhac, superior of the Franciscans of Nazareth, who, after a month spent in Jerusalem, was returning to his convent. "A singular type, gaunt, with a tired look, a thin beard, a great straw hat covered with a silk handkerchief, such as all the monks of the Holy Land wear." A Turk asked permission to take a seat in the carriage hired by Madame Serao, "and surely it was a curious sight, this high vehicle driven by a Prussian, carrying a French monk born near Cognac, an Italian lady, and a Turk of Haifa, all rolling over the vast plain of Esdraelon, on a fine morning, towards the place where Jesus spent his happy youth."

Thanks to civilization, the seaport of Jaffa is now united to Jerusalem by a railway. There is but one train a day, and the journey is made in three hours and a half. Madame Serao pronounces this railway odious; it is vulgar, it ought to be condemned in the name of all the tender and poetical ideas which it offends in the mind of the traveller:

"You run rapidly over the plain of Sharon where the Philistines conquered the sons of Israel and took from them the Holy Ark; the train leaves behind the valley where Delilah seduced Samson and sent him, a blind prisoner, to Gaza. You half see the valley of the giants, where David defeated the Philistines; further on, is not there the tomb of old Simeon, who took in his arms the Divine Infant and humbly begged God to recall him to him, as he had lived long enough to see the Saviour; is not there the mount where the Pharisees met Caiaphas to decide on the death of Jesus?"

The approach to Jerusalem, in the rapid motion of the train, is not what it ought to be. Not thus was it seen by the Crusaders who fought and died before its walls, and by all those who, till very lately, arrived on foot, on horseback, slowly, quietly before these towers and gates and churches, all so full of thoughts and of memories. "No, as soon as arrived, we must go with Cook's tourists to the new Grand Hotel, dress again, wait for the bell of the table d'hôte, dine with a British menu, take tea as if we were on the Maloja, in the Engadine, or at Monaco, and sleep ten hours—our first night in Jerusalem."

The first visit was naturally to the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, an indescribable mixture of all architectural styles, of chapels destroyed and reconstructed a hundred times; very symbolic of the perpetual conflict of the various Christian confessions.

"Near the portico which dominates the tomb, you see groups of women, draped in blue, miserable, taciturn, sitting on the ground, with children at their necks. They are Copts who spend the whole day in the church, and look at the crowd with their savage eyes. Nasal songs reach your ears; they come from a gallery adorned with gold and precious stones, where the Schismatic Greeks celebrate their sumptuous ceremonies. Turn towards the underground chapel where Saint Helen saw the Cross, and suddenly a door opens and a strange priest appears, with a great black silk cowl over his eyes, a long beard flowing to his waist. It is an Armenian priest, who sprinkles sacred water, perfumed with roses, on your hands and clothes."

The chapel of the Holy Sepulchre, isolated from the rest of the church, is said to have been constructed on the rock which formed the tomb of Joseph of Arimathea, and in which the body of Christ was placed. The sepulchre was covered with precious marbles by the mother of the Emperor Constantine. This holy chapel has only two rooms, the first called the Angel Chamber, where Mary Magdalene entered, two days after the Crucifixion (all the Hebrew tombs had a small entrance of this sort); the second, the Chamber of the Tomb, in which burn, day and night, forty-four magnificent silver lamps. Thirteen belong to the Latin Catholics—that is to say, to the Franciscans of the Holy Land; thirteen to the Schismatic Greeks; thirteen to the Christian Armenians, and five to the Copts. These proportions have been the subject of long quarrels, and are observed in all the details of the ceremonies of the Holy Sepulchre.

Madame Serao has most eloquent chapters on the Holy Sepulchre, on Jerusalem, on the Via Crucis, on Golgotha, so rich in images, in thought, that it would be idle to attempt to give an adequate idea of them; they must be read, and they could not be read without emotion even by an

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unbeliever if he had the smallest touch of poetry in him. Curiously enough, after such admirable pages, you find very commonplace details about the cost of a journey to Syria and Palestine, the hotel and *pension* charges, etc. This part of the book, which is, it must be said, only a sort of appendix, seems to have been written for Cook's tourists. It may, after all, be of some use to many; I infer from it that an excursion to Palestine is not a very costly affair, and can be undertaken by people of the most moderate means.

Correspondence.

UNITED STATES STEEL CORPORATION FINANCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last issue you criticise the United States Steel Corporation for paying dividends upon its common stock, while requiring to raise new capital for improvements, etc. This corporation has always been more remarkable for size than financial soundness, and while there may perhaps be two opinions as to paying any dividends on the common stock, nearly every one would agree that the dividends, if any at all, should have been much smaller from the start. The second-mortgage bond issue is also justly to be criticised. The comparatively small saving of 2 per cent. difference between the 7 per cent. dividend on $200,000,000 preferred stock and interest on the same amount of second-mortgage 5 per cent. bonds to be issued in exchange, viz., $4,000,000 per annum, is altogether inadequate to compensate for the dangerous increase of $250,000,000 in the funded debt, and the comparatively paltry addition of $50,000,000 new funds, and the absence of provision for any further permanent borrowing, it being practically impossible to raise new money by the issue of either preferred or common stock.

While your criticisms on both matters taken separately are just, yet it is desirable to point out that the raising of new capital and the payment of dividends in the same year are the common practice of the best corporations, not necessarily in itself a ground of criticism.

Robert S. Minot.

Boston, October 16, 1903.

[Each case of dividend-paying while borrowing new capital has to be judged by itself. In the Steel Corporation's case, the use of both policies simultaneously was a financial blunder, and has been abundantly proved to have been so by the event. The expenditures for which the $50,000,000 cash was to be borrowed were in the nature, not of new plant, but of improvement in the old plant, and this a manufacturer commonly expects to meet from a year's profits or from accumulated surplus. That the company, barely a year after its organization, found itself compelled to place a new mortgage on its property to meet such needs as this, was proof positive that dividend payment on the common stock had been unwisely begun. —Ed. Nation.]

UNIVERSITY IDEALS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The most striking contribution of "Veritas" to a burning question is his negative one. He who utters such salutary truth does not venture to indicate his identity, nor even his habitat. Possibly this illustrates the worst result of present conditions, viz., the inevitable timidity, not to say cowardice, of the scholar, and in particular of the mature learned specialist who teaches for a living. Of all men, he should be most fearless. Truth alone should be his overlord. Perhaps the most vital questions of the hour are: "Do we want such a class?" and, "Are we creating or destroying it?"

Human knowledge grows so complex that only a specialist can now speak with authority. Such enthusiastic specialists as Louis Agassiz are "too busy to make money." Most of them lack the magnetic power which reaches the popular ear with voice or pen, and so achieves personal and financial independence. In other words, most devoted specialists at forty or fifty, if they have inherited no fortune and secured no lucrative patent, can be assured of a life-long competence only through a university chair. Such a man will weld no Gurth's or Wamba's collar about his neck if he can avoid it. Whither shall he turn?

There certainly are men and women who give enormously for the creation of so-called universities and who do *not* believe in absolute freedom of speech. They hold, no doubt sincerely, that he who, like Gaius Gracchus, attacks franchises and other vested interests, or, like Anaxagoras, boldly ridicules the mystical and miraculous elements of the traditional theology, are as dangerous as the assassin who only destroys the body, not corporate wealth, nor the immortal soul.

The proviso that the head of a university and two-thirds of its trustees shall, through all future centuries, be avowed members of one minor sect, and that one the most exclusive among "evangelical Christians," is perfectly intelligible and defensible, from the pious believer's point of view. A similar proviso as to the teachers of theology, or of economics either, whether expressed or practically understood and exercised, is, or would be, entirely comprehensible, and, in its own sphere, effective of certain results. But if the other doctrine, that absolute freedom in discussion is the only assured highroad to helpful truth, be still peculiarly American; if, in particular, any of our generous public-spirited millionaires still hold it, then there must surely appear, somewhere, an institution of which that faith shall be the cornerstone.

A judge of the Supreme Court cannot be removed, I believe, for any mere heterodoxy, or even intemperance in utterance, on any subject. He cannot be decapitated by any single autocrat, but only after impeachment before his peers. The cause must be some demonstrable incompetence or unfitness for his position. The humblest teacher once permanently established in a New York city school has very much such a security of tenure. But does our university professor now have anything like it? Until he does, he must heed a warning, curt or kindly, that this or that utterance of his may displease a possible or actual donor, divert funds, and even imperil the rash speaker's usefulness to the institution. Such an institution may incubate much learning and even culture, but not beget heroic citizenship.

May a dreamer dream for one brief paragraph? Imagine twenty million dollars to start with. A hundred "life" chairs, at $10,000 each per annum, may be divided (somewhat like those of the French Academy) among ten large fields of study and instruction. They might be filled, at first, in a general open election by American college graduates, or by a large known group of independent scholars. As vacated, each chair could be filled by a majority vote, either of the subsection, or the entire body, or both. This call would be a direct statement that the recipient was the most eminent authority in his field, throughout the whole English-speaking world, available as a candidate. Some moderate provisions as to the number of hours of actual lecturing, teaching, or demonstrating expected annually, arrangements for retirement on half-pay, voluntary or by unanimous vote of one's colleagues, might provide against actual insanity or senile dementia. Is any teacher in America to-day so situated that he could hesitate to accept such a call? Yet lawyers, physicians, even clergymen, could be named who command thrice the modest income suggested, and whom no man or group of men would dare to threaten or warn.

W. C. L.

Brooklyn, October 16, 1903.

LORD PENZANCE ON THE BACON-SHAKSPERE CONTROVERSY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your recent review of this book you clearly deprecate the opinion deduced by Lord Penzance from the allusion to the Gardens of Adonis in the play of "Henry VI." Truly, his opinion confirms his incompetency and makes his "judicial summing-up" ridiculous.

It may be that his deduction was based upon what another, equally unskilled, has said about the Gardens of Adonis and the play of "Henry VI." Mr. Edwin Reed, in his 'Brief for Plaintiff: Bacon vs. Shakespeare,' page 67, quotes the lines from "Henry V.," i. 6:

> "Thy promises are like Adonis' gardens,
> That one day bloomed and fruitful were the next,"

and says:

"This reference puzzled all the commentators for nearly three hundred years, Richard Grant White declaring that 'no mention of any such garden in the classic writings of Greece and Rome is known to scholars.' It has recently been found, however, in Plato's 'Phædrus,' a work that had not been translated into English in Shakespeare's time."

Why all this pother? Why seek in the classics of Greece and Rome for such a "reference"? Shakspere need not so far have "progressed in his studies by March, 1592, as to have mastered the Greek language thus early," since on the 1st of December, 1589, 'The Faerie Queen' was entered on the books of the Stationers' Company; and early in 1590 the First, Second, and Third books were published in a small quarto by Ponsonby. Now, in the Third Book, Canto VI., there are about twenty stanzas describing the Gardens of Adonis:

> "And called is, by her lost lover's name,
> The Garden of Adonis, far renown'd by fame."
> . . . . . .

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"There is continual spring, and harvest there
Continual, both meeting at one time:
For both the boughs do laughing blossoms bear
And with fresh colours deck the wanton prime,
And eke at once the heavy trees they climb,
Which seem to labour under their fruit's load."

ALFRED WAITES.

WORCESTER, MASS., October 18, 1903.

PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF THE THEORY OF FUNCTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your interesting editorial of October 1, you say, concerning the theory of numbers and the theory of functions, that "no *practical* application, and (as far as one can see into the future) no *scientific* application, either, is likely ever to be made of one or other of those two theories, outside of pure mathematics itself." This statement would probably have passed unchallenged a few years ago, perhaps even as recently as the time when the lamented mathematician to whom you allude was devoting himself to that pure and secluded virgin, the theory of numbers; but the mathematicians and physicists have been coming together within the last decade; they are comparing their standing problems, and are learning how to be mutually helpful and stimulating. It is realized that certain physical problems are at a standstill for want of appropriate modes of mathematical expression, and that there is need for the invention or discovery of new forms of functional relationship. Increased attention is accordingly being directed to the wide field of the theory of functions of a complex variable. The complex plane is one of the meeting-grounds of mathematicians and physicists, and the latter are now quite at home in the presence of that coy handmaiden, the complex variable; indeed, the well-known transformation scene in which she and her image play such a prominent part, is now an important feature in the solution of some practical problems.

The discovery of a new form of function to correspond to a new physical relation is at once a gain to natural science and to mathematics, and it widens the intellectual horizon. A single concrete example of the way in which the mutual stimulus operates may be of interest.

In 1891 Dr. Pockels of Heidelberg, in his treatise on the partial differential equations of mathematical physics, made the following suggestive remarks:

"Both from a mathematical and physical standpoint, multiform functions are important, and it is very desirable that the properties of such functions, their winding-points and singularities, their behavior on Riemann surfaces, etc., should be systematically investigated—in short, all the function-theory questions which were handled in the theory of the Newtonian and logarithmic potential. . . . In this direction of inquiry without doubt a wide and rich field offers itself."

About six years later, Professor Sommerfeld of Aachen, and his pupil, Dr. Carslaw of Glasgow, contributed papers to the London Mathematical Society on the multiform functions that satisfy certain differential equations subject to various boundary conditions; and they used these functions to solve some standing physical problems. One of these was the following problem in diffraction: "Plane waves of sound, light, or electricity are incident on a thin infinite half-plane bounded by a straight edge: to find the resulting diffraction of the waves." This problem had been mentioned in Lord Rayleigh's article on 'Wave Theory' in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' in the following terms:

"The full solution of problems concerning the mode of action of a screen is scarcely to be expected. Even in the simple case of sound, where we know what we have to deal with, the mathematical difficulties are formidable, and we are not able to solve such an apparently elementary question as the transmission of sound past a rigid infinite thin plane screen bounded by a straight edge or perforated by a circular aperture."

The appropriate solution was obtained by the conception of a twofold Riemann space having the ordinary physical space as one of its folds, the half-plane as a branch membrane, and the straight edge as a winding line. The characteristic multiform function that expresses the wave motion was derived by the most beautiful use of pure function-theory.

I doubt if either Cayley or Sylvester would regret to see the sway of the virgin queen thus extended over new dominions. If she no longer has the seclusion of a "Leibnitzian monad," she exemplifies in a higher sense the Leibnitzian doctrine of preëstablished harmony—the harmony of the world of nature with the world of the intellect. What God hath joined together, let not man put asunder.

Very truly yours, JAMES MCMAHON.

ITHACA, N. Y., October 10, 1903.

[An apposite instance! Had we known of it, we should have softened our remark. Nor, in making it, did we forget that several applications have been made of propositions worked out by Cauchy and earlier mathematicians before the "theory of functions" was christened, and for which (though they are now incorporated in it) it can take no more credit than the theory of numbers could to the carpenter's rule of three-four-five, which was known to Pythagoras, but the principle of which may to-day figure in a treatise on that theory. But now, for the first time, we meet with one genuine case of an application of the theory of functions, upon which we may ground some hope for further such triumphs. It is a convincing and striking proof that a line of thought which seems to relate exclusively to impossible states of things may, if resolutely pursued, eventually bring great light upon familiar experiences. Let us give this instance a permanent place in our memory alongside of the fact that Pascal, after his wonderful discovery about conic sections, abandoned that study as an idle pastime having no application to any matter of importance.

All this, however, does not in the least touch the point that our remark was designed to make; for at the time when it could be said that the British were neglecting the theory of functions (which is no longer true), there was no glimmer of reasonable hope that it could ever be of any use. As for the theory of numbers, the first application of it has, we believe, yet to be made, unless, perhaps, Cayley used it for his theory of chemical "trees." But that concerns the *partition* of numbers, a separate branch of mathematics which the English have perfected, we believe.

We are heartily of opinion—but it is no longer a matter of opinion—that the younger generation of physicists are going to reap a rich harvest from their studies of the higher mathematics. In this they are only following a time-honored custom, for almost all the great physicists, from Galileo down, have been strong mathematicians. At the same time, there are instances enough—like the beautiful researches of Le Bon on phosphorescence and peculiar radiations—to show that, even in these days, the consciousness of a decidedly deficient capacity for mathematics need discourage no young man, nor young woman, from devoting himself or herself to physical investigations.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

A new edition of Stevenson's 'Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde,' with illustrations by Charles Raymond Macauley, and a reissue of the century-old 'Peter Piper's Principles of Polite Pronunciation' (for children), may be looked for next month from the Scott-Thaw Co. of this city.

The pioneer missionary of the Episcopal Church in the Northwest, Dr. J. Lloyd Breck, is to be commemorated in a volume of biography and reminiscences by the Rev. Theodore I. Holcomb published by Thomas Whittaker, under the title 'An Apostle of the Wilderness.'

L. C. Page & Co.'s fall announcements include 'Belgium: Its Cities,' by Grant Allen; 'Gardens of the Caribbees,' by Ida M. H. Starr; 'The Art of the Pitti Palace,' by Julia de W. Addison; 'The Cathedrals of Northern France,' by Francis Miltoun; 'Japanese Art,' by Sadakichi Hartmann; 'The Love Affairs of Great Musicians,' by Rupert Hughes; 'Stevenson's Shrine: A Record of a Pilgrimage,' by Laura Stubbs; 'The Kinship of Nature,' essays by Bliss Carman, with 'Sappho: One Hundred Lyrics,' by the same writer; and 'Militarism: or, Peace and War at the Beginning of the 20th Century,' by G. Ferrero.

'Two Argonauts in Spain,' Jerome Hart's letters to the San Francisco *Argonaut*, of which he is editor, will be brought out by the Argonaut Co.

We spoke recently of the approaching completion of the A. L. A. Index to Portraits. This great undertaking is, we learn from the September Bulletin of the Central National Library in Florence, to be paralleled (and of course overlapped) by that institution's own 'Indice dei Ritratti,' which has been in compilation for a decade. The impulse to this index was the gift to the Library of more than 20,000 portraits by Professor Buonamici; but the range of the work transcends this collection to embrace other portraits possessed by the Library as well as those in books. In this last particular, a base exists in a manuscript 'Iconografia Universale' begun in 1828 by Vincenzo Follini, in sixteen vol-

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umes, and including portraits scattered through the works in the Magliabechian section of the Library. The Bulletin, by the way, notices the Government appointment of a committee to catalogue and regulate the travelling libraries (*librerie ambulanti*).

One of the unnoticed events that deserve commemoration infinitely more than most battles is the completion of Mr. Charles Booth's description of the 'Life and Labor of the People in London' (Macmillan). This work, which in most respects far surpasses similar essays under Governmental auspices, such as our own census reports, will be of as much value to future historians as Domesday Book; and half the world need no longer be ignorant of how the other half lives. One cause of the success achieved was the unbiased character of the investigation, the design having been solely "to observe and chronicle the actual." In recognition of the magnificent public service so nobly rendered by Mr. Booth, if for no other reason, every one will join in the prayer with which he concludes: "May some great soul, master of a subtler and nobler alchemy than mine, disentangle the confused issues, reconcile the apparent contradictions in aim, melt and commingle the various influences for good into one divine uniformity of effort, and make these dry bones live, so that the streets of our Jerusalem may sing with joy!"

Four years ago we had occasion to praise Mr. Frederic C. Penfield's 'Present-Day Egypt,' and now we can welcome a revised and enlarged edition (The Century Co.). That there was room for this will appear if we mention solely the completion meanwhile of the mighty dam at Assuan, and of its tender at Assiut. The work has been reset and brought closely up to date.

Two editions of the works of Henry Fielding reach us together, and yet not precisely in rivalry. The first, in twelve volumes, is in the satisfactory form of Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.'s earlier meritorious reprints. It requires no further comment, except that it has agreeable introductions to each book, by Dr. G. H. Maynadier, and an etched frontispiece of excellent quality in every volume. The second edition, by Croscup & Sterling, in sixteen volumes, is of the *de luxe* order, and issued in only 1,000 copies. The books have all the attractions of clear type, deckle edges, and labelled red buckram covers, with the additional feature of more than a hundred illustrations, being facsimile title-pages, manuscripts of the author, portraits of himself and associates, and eighteenth-century illustrations to his works. Under this rubric the names of Stothard, Rowlandson, and Cruikshank (his ideal illustrator) are prominent. Furthermore, the present edition is far more complete than any previous, and probably definitive. Fifty titles, mostly under the head of dramatic and legal works, appear for the first time. The editorial compilation was a labor of love of the late W. E. Henley, whose essay on the genius of Fielding appears in the last volume. The general reader will do very well with the Crowell edition; the student and bibliophile must have recourse to Messrs. Croscup & Sterling.

Charles Scribner's Sons have imported the volume on 'Cricket' in the "Country Life" Library of Sport. It is edited by Horace G. Hutchinson, and elaborately illustrated with an assortment of old prints obtained from the Marylebone Club and from private collections. There are chapters by well-known experts on Batting, Bowling, Fielding, County Cricket, Australian Cricket, University Cricket, and so forth, full of excellent advice, discriminating comment, and interesting reminiscence; and the most exacting enthusiast would find it difficult to point out any important development in the history or practice of the game that is not recorded in these 440 pages.

If it be a function of literature to revive happy memories as well as to convey useful information, there will always be room for new books on the Alps. We do not refer alone to the record of mountaineering exploits, but to all kinds of writings which bring brown rock-wall or green pasture before the inner eye. 'A Pleasure-Book of Grindelwald,' by Daniel P. Rhodes (Macmillan), is to be recommended for its title, its illustrations, and its text. The author is apparently a "centrist," for he does not take us into outlying parts of the Oberland. His theme is the region between the Grosse Scheidegg and Mürren — the region, one might almost say, which can be controlled from the Bear Hotel. All the pleasant things of Alpine life and leisure enter into his pages. Winter and summer are alike recalled. We may hear echoes of climbing, but Mr. Rhodes does not look upon the Eiger and the Jungfrau as greased poles. Sliding, skating, and skiing have in turn their share of attention, while along with the notice of each sport we are given glimpses of the most beautiful landscapes which Switzerland affords. The illustrations, though not of the most expensive order, are so very attractive that they extort a word of more than conventional praise. This is not a book to be itemized, but to be read by all who love and miss the Alps.

'Sidelights on the Court of France,' by Lieut.-Col. Andrew C. P. Haggard (Dutton), the most lenient reviewer would find it difficult to praise. Its subject is the court life of France from the days of Francis I. to those of Louis XIII.; or, rather, its subject is the scandalous history of that period. Col. Haggard, we must admit, professes to be shocked at the profligacy which he describes; but why should he describe it? As a contribution to historical literature, his farrago of gossip deserves but the scantiest notice. For example, a single passage will suffice: "It was said and generally believed that the famous 'Man in the Iron Mask,' who was confined for life in the Bastile, was the elder brother of Louis XIV., being in truth the son of Anné of Austria by the Duke of Buckingham." As a piece of story-telling this book also fails to justify itself, for though it would fain be vivacious it is not so. There is no reason that we can see why books of this sort should be written, printed or bought.

'Sweet Violets and Pansies' (Scribners) is a book for such as would cultivate these exquisite floral cousins successfully. The fragrant violet is the favorite of the poet and the society woman, the pansy of the amateur gardener, because of its beauty and endless variety of coloring. It is not often that man can improve on nature, but in the case of the pansy he has done so amazingly. The wild Alpine pansy is a thing of beauty, but not such a joy forever as the garden pansy, which owes its present charms to persistent selection and weeding out. No variety of pansies can be depended upon to reproduce itself exactly; but this very fact is an advantage, as the editor of this volume, E. T. Cook, points out; for "nothing imparts such zest to gardening as watching a bed of seedlings for the opening flowers; . . . there are certain to be pleasant floral surprises in the way of highly promising novelties." He quotes the best authorities on pansy and violet culture freely, gives descriptions of many famous varieties, and full directions for raising from the seed or by means of cuttings.

It is instructive to watch the efforts to interest this country in its wards in the Far East, while our people cannot be said to concern itself yet with Porto Rico—nothing like as much as with Alaska. Mr. Samuel MacClintock, Ph.B., principal of the Cebu Normal School, has compiled 'The Philippines: A Geographical Reader,' which the American Book Company has brought out in good shape, with photographic illustrations of manners and customs, scenery, architecture, etc., and with simple maps. The last chapter describes the government of the islands, and recognizes the possible temporary nature of the existing connection with the United States.

The Smithsonian Institution's annual report for the year ending June 30, 1901, has just appeared. It embodies the report of the United States National Museum, by Richard Rathbun, which in turn embodies the report on the Museum's exhibit at Buffalo in the year named above. The photographic illustrations are very attractive. Room is found at the close of the volume for a narrative of a visit to Indian tribes of the Purus River, Brazil, by Joseph Beal Steere.

The Cambridge Antiquarian Society decided, in 1894, to commemorate the scholarly work of Henry Richards Luard, sometime Registrary of Cambridge University, by publishing the old records of academic life called "Grace" books. In accordance with this resolution, Grace Book A was most carefully edited, annotated, and indexed by Mr. Stanley M. Leathes of Trinity College, and appeared in 1897. Now, after an interval of six years, appears Grace Book B, Part I., containing the proctors' accounts and other records of the University of Cambridge for the years 1488-1511. (Grace Book A, be it remembered, covered the years 1454-1488.) The second part of Grace Book B, promised by the Society for 1904, will cover the years 1511-1549. Thus will become available for students of the momentous period which saw the growth and triumph of the new learning in Europe the minutest records of academic life at Cambridge. Already, in his edition of Grace Book A, Mr. Leathes called attention to the fact that, among the numerous books listed as pledges deposited up to 1488 in various university chests, there was no trace whatever of the revival of learning, and only one record of a printed book, mentioned as a curiosity. Turning to this year's publication of Grace Book B, Part I., we find that what must be a printed book, Ficino's Latin translation of Plato, was pledged in December, 1500. Here, then, is a trace both of the new art of printing and of the new learning. The editorial work upon Grace Book B has been put into commission, so to speak. Miss Mary Bateson has written the Introduction, and several hands have prepared the annotations, established

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the text, and achieved the invaluable index under the general auspices of the present Registrary of Cambridge, Mr. J. W. Clark. All this work reaches the high standard set by Mr. Leathes in the first memorial volume, and the learned world may well be grateful for these substantial contributions of the Cambridge Antiquarian Society.

A writer in the *Grenzboten* complains of the unconscionable time it is taking to complete the 'Deutsches Wörterbuch' begun by Jakob Grimm. A quarter of a century ago an optimistic critic expressed the hope of soon seeing the article "Gott" by Hildebrand; but that savant died before he had finished the words beginning with *ge*, and to this day only ten volumes have been completed, leaving eleven more to come. It was hoped that when, in 1868, the German Government took Grimm's work on its shoulders, it would be expedited; but the contrary was the case, and the present situation seems hopeless. Even if each of the five present editors contributed two *Hefte* a year, fifteen more years would be required to reach the end; but, as a matter of fact, only one of the five is an expert lexicographer who comes up to that mark, while the letter U has been given to a man who has done no important literary work in twenty years, and who, in the eight years since he was appointed one of the contributors to the dictionary, has not sent a single sheet to the publisher!

The earliest calendar for 1904 to reach us comes from over seas by way of Lemcke & Buechner, namely, the twentieth issue of the *Münchener Kalendar*, with its familiar monkish trade-mark and the customary display of arms of dukes, principalities, and noble families.

The *Consular Reports* for October has increased in size and in the number and variety of subjects treated. Among these the most important are the English tariff question, German industrial and commercial conditions, and the world's iron and steel production. There is a suggestive account of the work of the French chambers of commerce, 164 in number, in furnishing the Government with information about their districts, in aiding in tariff legislation, providing funds for public works (as, harbor improvements), and in founding commercial and industrial schools. From a brief statement of the occupation of the people in different countries it appears that the largest proportion of those engaged in agriculture, 64 per cent., is to be found in Hungary, the smallest, 10 per cent., in England. "With reference to the percentage of females employed, the United States stands first with only 14.3 per cent.," while in Austria the percentage is 47.

In a paper on the geographical distribution of insanity in the United States, to which a large part of the *National Geographic Magazine* for October is devoted, Dr. William A. White shows that insanity is due, not to physical environment, climatic or topographic conditions, but to the stress incident to the struggle for existence. A careful comparison of the statistics furnished by the census returns of 1880 with those of 1890, the results of which are given in a series of outline maps, make it evident that insanity increases in a certain ratio to the increased congestion of the population. Illustrative of this is the fact that in Georgia in 1880 there was but one insane negro to 1,764 of the colored population, while in New York the ratio was one to 333, or almost exactly the same ratio as for the whites. Mr. O. W. Price urges the immediate application of practical forestry to the lumber industry of this country. It now ranks fourth among our manufacturing industries, with an annual product valued at $566,000,000, but it is run on the fundamentally unsound principle of regarding only present profit without relation to the future. He advocates the gradual elimination of the large sawmill, the substitution of those of moderate size, and the adoption of measures to secure a second crop from the lumbered area.

In connection with that interesting event, the opening of the Germanic Museum at Harvard on November 10, Mr. Heinrich Conried has arranged to give a performance of three German plays—by Hans Sachs, Goethe, and Ludwig Fulda—typical of different epochs in the history of the German drama.

The good impression which foreigners often carry away with them after visiting the United States is evidenced, among other things, by the fact that a member of the Academy of Sciences of Christiania, who does not want his identity to be known, but who has spent a year in the United States, has given 6,000 crowns to the Nansen Fund for the promotion of science, which was established, it will be remembered, after the return of Nansen from his Arctic expedition, to serve as a nucleus for an American Fund. The donor desires in this way to give expression to his admiration and veneration for the American people, and he hopes that the fund will grow by contributions from others entertaining the same sentiments.

That Henrik Ibsen's health is better than it has of late repeatedly been reported to be, appears from a story told in a Christiania newspaper. Ibsen, it seems, is very fond of spending a part of his forenoons sitting on a bench in the Queen's Park, a secluded part of the Royal Park surrounding the castle; but one day, when he came to take his usual airing, he found the gate closed, to his great disgust, for he was unaware that the Queen's Park is always closed to the general public when the Queen honors the city with her presence. The King, however, learned of the matter, and immediately gave orders that Ibsen should be admitted to the park at any and all times, sending him, besides, a key to the park, so that he could always be sure of his ability to enter.

On the 27th of October a remarkable expiatory memorial will be unveiled in Geneva on the spot where Michael Servetus was burned to death for heresy just three hundred and fifty years ago. The placing of this granite block is the outcome of the agitation of Professor Doumergue, the great historian of Calvin. Beneath the record of the historic event the tablet contains the following memorable words: "Fils respectueux et reconnaissants de Calvin, notre grand réformateur, mais condamnant une erreur qui fut celle de son siècle, et fermement attachés à la liberté de conscience selon les vrais principes de la Réformation, nous avons élevé ce Monument Expiatoire le 27 Octobre, 1903."

With what difficulties the students of modern history must contend in Prussia is clear from an article published in the last *Heft* of the *Historische Vierteljahrschrift*, by Professor Rochfahl, who reports that the Government of that country refuses to scholars and savants all access to the state archives later than the year 1840. Permission to study the materials since that year is granted only as an exceptional privilege and with sharp restrictions. Rochfahl, who once secured such permission to secure data for the March Revolution of 1848, was compelled to submit his extracts to the authorities, who eliminated the best and most important portions.

—The first number of the *Scottish Historical Review* appears this month with the imprint of Messrs. MacLehose & Sons, publishers to the University of Glasgow, and is adorned most appropriately with the rampant lion of Scotland, associated in academic circles with the arms of Balliol College, but nowhere, be it admiringly said, more correctly and artistically portrayed than on this beautifully printed quarterly. Thus from the ashes of the *Scottish Antiquary*, of which this Review is technically a "New Series," emerges a periodical which takes its place worthily by the side of the American and English historical reviews. It is intended to cover history, archæology, and literature, "with more particular attention to Scotland and the Borders," and prominence will be given to "the discussion of problems in old English and Scottish literature"—according to the account of it offered by the editor, whose name does not appear. A long list of prospective contributors, including most of the well-known authorities on Scottish antiquities and many others, shows that this review has a most solid backing in Scotland, and makes it certain to deserve a wider support than could be given to the *Scottish Antiquary*. To the present number Prof. Walter Raleigh contributes a paper on the lives of authors, illustrated by uncommonly well-executed facsimiles from the Bodleian engravings and drawings of Isaak Walton, John Aubrey, and Anthony à Wood. Mr. Law's account of Lislebourg and Petit Leith explains the bestowal upon Edinburgh of the name Lislebourg—common in France and Spain for a considerable period beginning shortly before the birth of Mary Queen of Scots. Edinburgh was called Leith-lebourg, and its port Petit Leith, he thinks. However that may be, he absolutely disposes of the popular account of the matter which requires Edinburgh to figure in the mind of the French as the island-city, L'Islebourg. What Mr. Law desiderates is examples of either Lislebourg or Petit Leith before June, 1540, the date of the dispatch of Marillac, in which he finds the earliest use of Lislebourg for Edinburgh. Mr. Millar reports on a curious volume in which Scotland was described for Queen Magdalene by Jehan Desmontiers, whom James V. engaged to do the work for his bride's enlightenment. Only one copy of this book exists in Britain, nor is it frequent on the Continent, where it was printed in 1538. Interesting as the other contributions are, only Mr. Andrew Lang's publication of a letter from Sir William Stewart and Mr. James Wilson's account and publication of an English letter of Gospatric (old English accompanied by a translation) can be mentioned here.

—The article in the July number of the *Burlington Magazine* (New York: Samuel Buckley & Co.) possessing the greatest gen-

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eral interest is that which deals with the Sir Joshuas, twenty-six in number, in the collection of the Earl of Normanton. Thirteen of these are illustrated in the plates, two in photogravure, and the rest in half-tone. They include the seven paintings of the cardinal and theological virtues which were made as designs for the stained-glass window at New College, Oxford, and are as charming as independent works of eighteenth-century art as they are inappropriate to their purpose; the other pictures are portraits, the best of which, to our mind, is that of George, third Duke of Marlborough. As a whole, this group of Reynolds's works is pronounced by Mr. Max Roldit to be "unparalleled in any other collection, public or private, all the world over." Of the other articles, that on "The Plate of Winchester College" is most splendidly illustrated. In a review of Ricci's 'Pintoricchio' occurs the following paragraph, which is worthy of the attention of some of our mural painters:

"But modern art is just at a point where Pintoricchio is really more sympathetic than the masters of the great style, for in the break-up of artistic tradition and the decline of classical taste the decorator of to-day is thrown back upon parading the mere materials of his art, upon bright color and relief, upon sumptuousness, and the startling and attractive. He has, in fact, dedicated himself to ornamentation—for we must not debase the word decoration! And of ornamentation, of the sumptuous, the attractive, the gay and the ingenious, Pintoricchio was a master. The gorgeousness of the Borgia apartments delude even critics who ought to distinguish more subtly, into praising them as art."

This coincides so exactly with our own opinion, as expressed in our review of the same work, that it is a pleasure to reprint it.

—The August number, though of the usual high standard of this magazine, is perhaps a trifle less interesting. Georg Gronau seems to us to overrate Titian's portrait of the Empress Isabella, wife of Charles V., of which an admirable photogravure is given. The picture, in our judgment, shows just that lack of vitality which was to be expected in the painting of a person whom the artist had never seen. The publication of the presumptive original from which Titian worked gives its main interest to the article. Mr. Campbell Dodgson writes of a "newly discovered portrait-drawing by Dürer," not of the highest quality, recently acquired by the British Museum, which he thinks he has succeeded in identifying as a portrait of Margaret, sister of Casimir, Margrave of Culmbach; and Mr. Pennell "does not argue with us, but tells us" about "Later Nineteenth Century Book Illustrations." On the whole, we are most thankful for the "Portrait of a Lady," by Rembrandt, in the collection of Mr. J. Hage, a picture of the year of the "Anatomy Lesson," and a beautiful piece of Rembrandt's smooth and finished workmanship in his early period, with all his invariable sense of life. It is published in a good half-tone plate with brief comment.

—Of particular interest were two recent meetings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. The address of the President, Mr. Charles Francis Adams, in which he tells the story of the battle of Salamis, would alone distinguish the proceedings, for he restates the subject in the light of a personal visit to Marathon and Salamis. Apart from this presentation, to which we may return, the Society prints a remarkable series of letters written to Dr. Richard Price, who was so good a friend to America in the Revolution, and a second series of letters from Benjamin Vaughan to the Earl of Shelburne. In the eighty-one Price letters is new material from Franklin, Jefferson, Chauncy, Winthrop, Gordon, Rush, Shelburne, and others, extending from 1767 to 1790. The quality of this correspondence is unusually high, and throws much light upon English and American politics during and after the Revolution. Ezra Stiles thought the Quebec act would cause a "jubilee in Hell," and Chauncy believed the Continental currency and its failure a real blessing to the country. The phrase "prudential algebra" is worthy of Franklin, and his criticism of Necker is quite as good: "I will not say that the writer thinks higher of himself and his abilities than they deserve, but I wish for his own sake that he had kept such sentiments more out of sight." Shelburne makes the suggestion that the displeasure so long displayed against Carleton arose from his not employing the Indians sooner. Hazlitt, the father of the essayist, gives a warning against Dr. Rush which is all the more curious as being undoubtedly true, though much against the character of the doctor. "Sandford and Merton" Day offers a not unjust criticism of American poetry, in connection with a proposal to dispose of the copyright of Barlow's 'Columbiad' in England. The one letter in the collection written by Dr. Price contains a very appreciative account of his friend, Adam Smith, who had recently passed away.

—The letters of Vaughan to Shelburne are supplied by Mr. Adams, and were copied from the originals with an intention of including them in the "Works of John Adams." The nine letters now printed relate to the peace negotiations of 1783. The writer ingeniously urged reasons for retaining the Floridas as a base for threatening the possessions of Spain in America. "While wars are among our foolish customs, I cannot see why the Gulf of Mexico should not as well belong to England as to Spain." With Canada, the St. Lawrence, the Lakes, the Ohio, and the Mississippi in English keeping, there would be a "trading coast" at the back of the American "colonies" answering to the Atlantic in front of them. This was late in 1782, when Vaughan was urging haste so that no interruption could come from Adams, then at The Hague and believed to be hostile to Great Britain and her desires. Later he looked upon Adams as very favorable to England. The two series of letters are notable.

—One of the most encouraging signs that, in this country, the study of Greek, the interest in Greek civilization, are not destined to fall into the background, is the popular support regularly given to the revival of a Greek play. Whether at Harvard or the University of Pennsylvania in the East, or at Stanford or Berkeley on the Pacific Coast, there seems to be no difficulty in securing large audiences who not only sit out a play in a language they do not understand, but follow it with unflagging interest. Aristophanes won no more flattering tribute from his admiring Athenians than was paid him by the 7,000 American spectators who witnessed a single performance of the "Birds," last month, in the new Greek theatre at Berkeley. The fact that seven representations of the "Antigone" were given in southern and central California last year by the members of Stanford University, and that the receipts met all the expenses, is, some will think, a more signal triumph for Sophocles than that famous victory over Æschylus won more than two thousand years ago. To commemorate its success, the department of Greek in Stanford University has published an attractive little volume entitled "Antigone" (San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co.), with a full account of the presentation and a score of full-page photographs, which should be useful to the promoters of any Greek play in the future. A critical study of the play by A. T. Murray is included; but perhaps the most important feature is an essay on the "Choral Side of the Antigone," by H. Rushton Fairclough, who gives a clear and accurate account of the musical setting of a Greek play and the functions of the chorus, together with a discussion of Mendelssohn's choral music, which was composed for the "Antigone" in 1841 at the request of Frederick William of Prussia. It is the great advantage of the "Antigone" that it possesses this set of choruses for male voices in which the genius of Mendelssohn offsets the antiquarian accuracy, or attempt at accuracy, of more modern imitators of Greek music.

—It is usually a dull task, if not unprofitable, to read the Introduction of a college text-book. Not so, however, with the selections from Pliny's Letters prepared for Macmillan's Classical Series by Prof. Elmer T. Merrill. From the humor so frequently observable in the introductory pages we are disposed to infer that Professor Merrill has sat at the feet of the sage of Johns Hopkins—if not as a pupil, at any rate as a reader of those delightful editorial coruscations which appear from quarter to quarter in the *American Journal of Philology*. Professor Merrill sets a high value on the Letters, not discounting them so heavily as some because of their artificial character. A man may be excessively self-conscious, he holds, may write with a constant view to future publication, and still be sincere. It must be conceded, however, that one writing under these conditions will hardly come as near telling the *whole* truth as he might otherwise do. The loss of Pliny's speeches and poems is not regarded as a serious misfortune. As to the former, the possession of the 'Panegyric' "will go far towards solacing our grief for the loss of the remainder." And of the poems we are told: "As every man of letters then or in any period of the world ought to do, Pliny loved poetry; and as few men then or ever ought to do, he tried to write it. Naturally enough, he loved what he had written, but, worse than that, he also admired it." Professor Merrill has made an independent and careful study of the manuscripts, and his readings differ in about one hundred and thirty cases from those of Keil's critical edition (1870). Grammatical discussions are excluded from his Introduction, as he does not choose to display "the bleached and arid bones of grammatical and stylistic framework, laid out in classified order before the student's repugnant vision" right at the start. The commentary is sufficiently full—about two pages

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to one of text—and is well adapted to elucidate the thought.

THE "CAMBRIDGE" UNITED STATES.

The United States. (The Cambridge Modern History. Volume VII.) Macmillan Co. 1903.

The present volume of the "Cambridge Modern History" is, although published next after the first volume, the seventh and not the second of the whole series, and, instead of carrying on the European story from the days of Maximilian of Germany and Henry the Eighth of England, makes a new start with the English and French occupation and colonization of North America. It is all (except the two chapters on the French in Canada) occupied with the history of the United States; and out of its 751 pages nearly 200, filling six chapters, are devoted to the War of Secession—a proportion perhaps excessive when one considers that, immensely important as that struggle was, it represents in a certain sense rather a side channel than the main stream of American development. The history of democratic institutions and the history of economic development are, after all, the two lines of progress with which the present and future have most to do.

In conformity with the general plan of this great work, the present volume is the work of different writers selected for the special competence each is deemed to possess for dealing with the particular topic committed to him. Thirteen contribute, all but three of whom are Americans. One of the three, Mr. John A. Doyle, writes four chapters, covering the history of the colonies down to the end of the Revolutionary war. The Declaration of Independence and the Constitution are fully treated by Mr. Melville M. Bigelow. Prof. J. B. McMaster gives us in three chapters a general history of the nation from 1783 till 1850, while the war of 1812, considered as a sort of military and naval episode, is allotted to Mr. H. W. Wilson. President Woodrow Wilson, in a chapter on the State Rights controversy, carries the reader down to 1860, where the late Mr. John G. Nicolay takes up the tale, and narrates minutely the operations in the civil war. After chapters on the South during the War by Professor Schwab, on Political Reconstruction by Mr. Theodore Clark Smith, and on the United States as a World Power by Prof. John B. Moore, which bring the narrative down to 1902, two concluding chapters by Prof. H. C. Emery and Prof. Barrett Wendell give a general survey of the economic development of the United States and of the work of America in the field of literature and art. This enumeration shows how difficult it is to review the book as a whole. One cannot, within the limits of an article of this kind, attempt to describe or criticise the method, the style, the idiosyncrasies of thirteen different writers; nor can one examine the general views of the course of American history presented, for each writer has his own point of view, and it is in the variety of points of view as well as in special competence that the value of this sort of composite work resides.

This, however, we may say of the volume as a whole, that, like Volume I., it is a piece of good, solid, thorough work from beginning to end. There is very little rhetoric and, indeed, very little ornament of any kind. All is practical, direct, and business-like. Few of those general reflections in which the old historians rejoiced are to be found, even when the result of a series of events might be profitably summed up in that form. However, in several of the chapters, such as President Wilson's on the last political phase of the "irrepressible conflict," before the ship was hurried into the rapids by the Presidential election of 1860, we find a clear, broad, and vigorous presentment of most of the forces that were at work worthy of his reputation, as well as an admirable sketch of Calhoun. Mr. Bradley's account of the campaign which wrested Canada from France and gave it to England is full of spirit; and Prof. Barrett Wendell's chapter entitled "The American Intellect" is a striking piece of work in its conciseness, in the constant precision and frequent felicity of its expression, and in the effort to interpret each part of the products of American thought by the other parts, so as to convey a general impression of the typical features of the national mind. There is no harder task than to present such a view which shall be consistent throughout, and yet avoid the error of giving undue prominence to any one leading idea. And although those who have meditated on the topics Professor Wendell handles may find themselves differing from some of his judgments, they will, if they are candid, admit that he has given them suggestions deserving to be pondered over, and fit to awaken new ideas in their own hearts.

One task, however, which the composition of this volume involved is scarcely less formidable than that which confronted Professor Wendell. It is the task of telling the political story of the last few years—years which are in the memory of all of us; years whose events are still the subject of strenuous controversy. Many of the data by which the judgment of history on the actors in those events will be determined have not yet been made public, nor can the most courageous and candid writer venture to say all that he thinks, even when he is sure that he possesses sufficient data, because nobody can be expected to embroil himself in disputes with living men or their near relatives. It is as perilous to deal with the history of one's own time as it is to speak the whole truth regarding some prominent person who has just quitted the world. Prof. J. B. Moore had therefore a duty of extreme difficulty and delicacy when he undertook the last narrative chapter, which covers the period from 1885 to 1902. He has addressed himself to it with honesty and impartiality. He has wisely made it a mere record of facts, and has abstained from the expression of opinions, whether on politics or on persons. Yet without some expressions of opinion it is scarcely possible to convey the whole facts, for the significance of the facts cannot be understood without a knowledge of the personal factors. Mr. Blaine, for instance, and President McKinley are in these pages little more than names, yet it was the character of the two men that at certain points made all the difference to the course things took. We could not send a European to this portion for an account of the proceedings which led up to the war with Spain, and of the features of that war itself with any confidence that he would know all the causes, or even all the main causes, that determined the momentous change that war has brought. This may suggest a doubt whether the editors have been well advised in trying to bring the narrative, except in the form of a bare chronological record, down to the date of publication of each volume.

Returning to the book as a whole, and repeating the impression of fairness and thoroughness which it makes, we may add a few criticisms on points which seem inadequately dealt with. In chapter v. Mr. Doyle describes the incidents in the quarrel with Great Britain with the knowledge and judgment we expect from him, and in chapter vi. ("The Declaration of Independence") Mr. Melville Bigelow gives an extremely careful and valuable analysis of the legal questions at issue between the mother country and the colonies. But a chapter, or a section of a chapter, is also needed to describe the moral and social forces which were tending to draw the nations apart—a branch of the subject which, so to speak, falls through between these two writers. The chapters devoted to the struggle over slavery may appear scarcely satisfactory to those, now becoming few, who remember the ante-bellum days. Slavery was a worse thing, not only in its ultimate economic results, but also in the actual suffering it inflicted, in the moral evils it engendered, in the spirit and temper it created, than would be gathered from chapter xiii.; and although the moral feeling of the North which expressed itself most forcibly among the Abolitionists is touched upon, its importance as a factor is not quite fully recognized. In the later parts of the volume three topics receive less prominence than they deserve. One is the growth of the party system—a growth which is really the most distinctive feature of American democracy, the most remarkable contribution to the "natural history of democracy in general" which America has made. Another is the part played in the public life of the country by great cities and the problems of municipal administration. Though it would have been impossible to trace in detail the changeful phases of corruption and purification, of reform and relapse, in New York or Philadelphia or Chicago, the influence of the cities has grown so notably that this important subject ought not to have been passed over almost in silence. Lastly, there is the negro problem. It is touched on in the chapter on Reconstruction, but its later developments, both social and Constitutional, receive slight notice, though the whole history of the colored race in America is one of the most remarkable and instructive branches of the ethnological annals of mankind.

A critic who notes these deficiencies is also bound to admit the enormous difficulty of compressing into one volume, even a volume of 857 pages, the mass of facts which had to be set forth and explained when tracing during three centuries the progress of a gigantic nation. Even had the omissions been far more numerous, the book would be one of great and permanent value. It contains (and this is an improvement on volume i.) a useful chronological table of leading events, as well as a carefully prepared Bibliography, which serious students will find serviceable. Another improvement is the presence of an index to this volume. It would (we may be allowed to repeat) be a

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convenience to the reader if at the corner of the top of each page the name of the writer of the particular chapter were given, for it is hard, when one has occasion from time to time to consult the book, to recollect which of the numerous writers is responsible for the chapter under perusal.

BRYAN'S DICTIONARY OF PAINTERS.

Bryan's Dictionary of Painters and Engravers. New edition, revised and enlarged under the supervision of George C. Williamson, Litt. D. With numerous illustrations. Volume I., A-C. Volume II., D-G. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1903.

This well-known work was first published in 1816. An edition revised by J. Stanley was published in 1849, and a supplement to this in 1876. An edition revised by Robert Edmund Graves of the British Museum, and extended to two volumes of about 750 pages each, large octavo, in two columns, was published in parts between 1884-1890, with Sir Walter Armstrong, since so widely and favorably known as a writer on painting, as editorial associate for the second volume. That edition differed in title from the present one, but only in a minor detail. For fifteen years it has been, in a general way, the most useful dictionary to students, for the arts of painting and engraving alone; all other classes of artists being excluded from Bryan's Dictionary except when, as in the case of Antoine Louis Barye, a sculptor was also known as successful in one of the graphic arts. Even this name was admitted grudgingly, however, for the amount and excellence of Barye's work, and the interest it has often excited among artists as well as among the instructed public, would entitle him to more than the six lines allowed.

We must not ignore some slight annoyances to him who would consult this dictionary in the course of his daily work. Take one of the simplest possible instances: each name is followed by the words "was born in ———" or words altogether equivalent to this; but the date of death is not to be found until the close of the biography. Now as this biography may be succeeded by a long discussion of the merits of the artist, or by an attempted analysis of his work at an earlier and a later epoch, it follows that the date of death is almost undiscoverable, and that one is much more apt to catch up Champlin and Perkins, or Seubert, or James, or the 'National Biography' for Great Britain, or one of the two American biographical dictionaries, or Michaud, or Hoefer, or some other general work—anything rather than hunt through the packed text for a date. We have named above books in which this defect (of obvious importance to the busy maker of "copy," while he is writing or dictating), is consistently avoided. Each one begins the notice with a simple parenthesis within which are the two dates, the years of birth and death with a dash between them; or with a statement almost as brief including the place of birth and of death, when known. Alone the magnificent 'Allgemeines Künstler Lexikon,' by Dr. Meyer, based upon Nagler's old 'Dictionary of Artists,' sometimes omits that device for facilitating study; but to this and to similar minor faults of omission it owes its commercial failure, for in thirty years it has not advanced beyond *Bezzuoli*.

Bryan's book had this advantage, a merit shared by the great German work alone, that, after the biography of a notable artist, a list of his works was given, arranged methodically under towns and galleries. As these lists were printed in tabular form, they allowed of very easy consultation. Etchings or other work on copper and wood were separated from paintings in these tables, as where we find under the term "Bol, Ferdinand," first a table of known paintings of importance, and then, after a brief introduction, a separate list of etchings. In each of these two lists, and their introductory notes, by the way, only one thing is lacking—some mention of the fact that Bol counts so obviously for much in the etchings commonly ascribed to Rembrandt.

Comparing volume one of the present edition with that of Graves and Armstrong, there are to be noted many additions, as of persons who have died since the former work was made complete (for the work is limited strictly to the dead), and other insertions of artists of less fame who had not been thought worthy of a place in the first edition. As the preface says: "Many more names have unfortunately become eligible for inclusion, and further researches have brought to light new facts"; and it is stated that about five hundred new notices are to be included in the work. Thus, there is a column devoted to Boecklin (entered, strange to say, after Boekhorst and Boekel); the notice is rather critical than biographical, perhaps as introducing the epoch-making work of an artist so little known in the West. In like manner Rosa Bonheur has about a column, and Benjamin Constant as much. No one of these three artists is allowed a tabulated list of paintings, but many names of pictures are mentioned in the text or in a small-print note at the end of the biography. Ford Madox Brown has a page and a half; but although he had been dead at least nine years before this book can have gone to press, no list of his works is given, but only the names of pictures which are convenient for the criticism undertaken. Burne-Jones (entered under B) receives two pages, but here also the tabulated list is omitted. We regret to see this general abandonment by the editors of the new work of what was a valuable feature of the standard book finished in 1889. We are not unmindful of the fact that the work of very recently living men is mainly in private hands; and that of course would make such compiling more difficult—not less desirable. French and other Continental schools are treated in a rather off-hand way. Pierre Victor Galland has thirteen lines only, and Gaillard, chief of all recent engravers with the burin, only eighteen. Perhaps it is not the "foreigner" who receives this slighting treatment at the hands of the English editor, but the decorator and the innovating engraver, rather. At least, Jules Dupré of the newer men has space enough allowed him; as have also Henry Peters Gray and the battle-painter, Detaille, who, by the way, is named not as having died, but as having given up painting only.

Considering the older artists, those of whom no strikingly new knowledge has been obtained, we find the notice of Thomas Bewick unchanged, and that of George Cruikshank also unchanged except for a word or two. Gustave Courbet and Thomas Couture have here, also, the same notices which they had in the former edition, although the notice of Couture was limited to twenty lines and a list of six pictures; that of Courbet to less than a column all told. It is a small matter, perhaps, that Courbet is said to have certain pictures in the Louvre, six in number, whereas that great museum has ten Courbets. The notice given to Camille Corot remains unchanged, and no table of his works follows it, though five or six pictures are named in the text. The fact that the Louvre, the special goal of every French artist, contains five of his paintings, is not mentioned; nor are the very remarkable and precious etchings by Corot named in the new edition, as they were not named in that of 1886.

Considering now some of the great celebrities of old time, some of the giants of whom perhaps all that need be known is given in the former editions, we find that Paul Veronese (under Caliari) has the same notice that he had in the former edition, with the exception of a few deleted lines, and with what appears to be a deliberate omission from the list of all paintings in private hands. Correggio (under Allegri) has also the same notice as in the former edition and the same table of works; but the earlier edition credited this list to "Dr. Meyer's carefully prepared catalogues," an ascription which the new edition omits.

There is one important consideration in the study of all these dictionaries of artists, the tone of criticism adopted. This, of course, varies with the writer of the separate notice, and it would require incredible firmness and unattainable range on the part of the editor-in-chief to restrain even in part the expression of opinion by his numerous contributors. Within limits, the expression of individual opinion can be restrained, can be modified, can be even modified for the better by the added responsibility which weighs upon him who in a sense commits the whole body of his fellow-contributors and his editorial chief as well, and who, therefore, cannot write with the same indifference to the opposite and differing views which he might feel when writing under his own signature and without editorial supervision. To a very small extent only are these conditions changed by the insertion of initials after some of the newer articles. It is still within the bounds of possibility that criticism should be restrained from assuming the dithyrambic tone of Mr. Malcolm Bell's article on Burne-Jones, or the surprisingly positive statements made by the editor in his article on Benjamin Constant, who is there asserted to have been the master of the modern French school—a statement which would astonish most members of that school. But the tone of criticism is, on the whole, instructive. To say that it is altogether just would be to say too much; but what one needs most to know is given in most cases. Thus, in the article on Corot and in the article on Caldecott (to take only the newest biographies), the characterization of the man's work is accurate enough and gives all that one needs, perhaps, in the way of the ordinary search for information. E.

On the whole, then, this book is a less complete remaking of 'Bryan' than we had

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hoped for, and falls short of the ideal as a dictionary of painters and (especially) engravers. There is, however, a new feature of unquestioned value and interest, having only one disagreeable side to it, the consequent increase in the size of the dictionary and also in its cost. Each of the two volumes already issued is as thick as the old volume of twice the number of pages, a difference which cannot be altogether accounted for by a slight increase in the thickness of the paper (which is also very much prettier, with soft, rough surface and a pleasant tint). What really makes them heavy, and also precious to the student, is the addition of one hundred, or of eighty, full-page plates by photographic process, including modern as well as ancient paintings, and, since they are accessible under the alphabetized list of names, extremely useful to the student. That means a collection of four hundred and fifty well-chosen pictures. This, then, is a work for extra-illustration with many inserted plates, not for the sake of making something unique to figure in catalogues of auction sales to come, but for frequent consultation. It so happens that the world has been enriched, of late, by a number of collections of photographic reproductions without texts. In Germany, in France, in England, and in the United States these gatherings of half-tones and other process-prints reproducing the paintings of the great masters by the score and by the hundred abound; and it is not a difficult thing to add twenty Ghirlandajos to the two given here under Bigordi, or as many Bellinis and half as many Boningtons. Moreover, the presence of these pictures suggests what might be done in the way of making a dictionary that would appeal to those who can learn by observation better than by reading.

Sea Scamps. By Henry C. Rowland. McClure, Phillips & Co.

McTodd. By C. J. Cutcliffe Hyne. The Macmillan Co.

It is rather an uncommon coincidence that two books of sea-tales should be issued simultaneously, each by a different author, and that each should have qualities far above the average of their class. 'Sea Scamps' is a vivid, fluent, picturesque, and entertaining series of yarns told by three men, equal participants in adventures on Eastern seas. One is an English surgeon, the other an American railroad man, and the third an English artist. Each in turn contributes to the continuity of the narrative. So skilfully has the author varied the method of expression or style of each of the narrators that the illusion of three distinct contributors, instead of one, is consistently carried out.

Brown, the artist, was not at first associated with the other two on their nautical enterprises. He came in later, under the plea of opportunity to study the movement of the ocean from the deck of a ship. Under these circumstances—although a subsequent and willing participant in their adventures—he feels at liberty to criticise with considerable frankness the moral attitude of his comrades. Of Bolles, the English surgeon, and Knapp, the American railroad man, he says they were unprincipled solely from early associations, which, in the case of Knapp, were rigid New England Congregationalist, while Bolles was so by reason of the High Church teachings he had absorbed as an undergraduate at Oxford. With such handicaps, it was not surprising, according to Brown, that Bolles had been engaged in smuggling opium into the Philippines (since American occupancy), and that he and Knapp had been together in another enterprise perilously near to piracy. Individual opinion as to the falsity or truthfulness of Brown's deductions can best be determined after perusal of 'Sea Scamps.' In the narrative—contributed ostensibly by Brown—called the "Break of the Monsoon," will be found a description of a typhoon at sea which throws into shadow almost any previous attempt to describe this atmospheric phenomenon. For vivid, impressive suggestion of verity, for wild and turbulent movement, it has never been surpassed, if ever equalled.

Mr. Cutcliffe Hyne, in many of his sea tales, has done as much—many will concede as well—for the Scotch marine engineer on tramp (and other second or third-rate) steamers, as Kipling has done for Tommy Atkins and the British army. In 'McTodd,' he holds to the fore with no diminution of his accustomed power and humor. McTodd is a whiskey-soaked Scotch engineer, who, under the influence of liquor, is involved in constant trouble. Courageous, competent, and resourceful, drunk or sober, his love of whiskey bars him from a Board of Trade certificate of chief engineer; consequently he is a chronic growler and fighter. His hand is against every man's and every man's hand is against him. His shifts of employment lead him from the tropics to the Arctic Sea. The yarns, which are all in the form of personal narrative, have a very uniformly sustained interest. In the exercise of his choice among them, the reader will find it hard to discover wherein one shows inferiority to the other. In them all, however, McTodd's too frequent iteration of his filial devotion and responsibility becomes somewhat fatiguing. This is the sole blemish in what is otherwise fine literary art.

World's Children. By Mortimer Menpes. Text by Dorothy Menpes. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1903.

'World's Children' is preëminently a picture-book. The text which accompanies the one hundred colored plates depicting types of children of different countries and incidents in their lives, is merely to explain the pictures and point out racial differences, manners, and customs. There is much to delight the eye in Mortimer Menpes's work; he has the gift of seizing the characteristic moment, and of rendering it with great freshness of color and accuracy of impression. This is true of his pictures at first hand, but it seems impossible for any mechanical process to be satisfactory where color is involved. Although these reproductions were engraved and printed at the Menpes Press, under the direct superintendence of the artist, it is evident from many instances of defective modelling, the pervading blackness in shadows, and the frequency of hot, tawny tints, that the original painting has suffered much through its translation, even under these most favorable conditions. We take as an example Marguerite, the Flemish child, a charming arrangement of delicate tints of white, in which the child's face tells out as the only positive color. The drawing and modelling and expression leave nothing to be desired, but the color of the face is leaden where it should be brilliant, as if the reds had been rubbed over with pencil. In many less careful drawings, more like sketches in execution, the flesh tints look quite inky, as in "Rough Locks" (Sicily), "Fiammetta" (Italy), "An Armful (Cashmere), "In the Sun" (India); while "The Lilac Sunbonnet" is a remarkably subtle example of delicate color accurately rendered. We note also a "Bye-Street in Cairo" as one of the most pleasing pictures in the book.

No especial plan has been followed as to the nationalities represented. Although there are many examples of English, Italian, French, Indian, Chinese, Japanese, and Mexican children—besides other European nationalities—Turkey and Greece, Austria and Germany have no representatives here. Of American children there are three illustrations, two of Puritans and one little lady in her perambulator, while the corresponding text by Dorothy Menpes offers severe criticism as to our method of education, formed chiefly, we should judge, on varieties to be met with in transatlantic travel. Where children are concerned, generalizations are dangerous, especially when distributed among different nationalities, for children are much the same all the world over. We are surprised to read the following remark: "There are perhaps no more obedient children in all Europe than the children of France. A French child never dreams of questioning a command." The narrative is most interesting when it tells of children of Cashmir, Ceylon, Burma, India, and Japan, the less familiar nationalities affording therefore more scope as to folk-lore, the manners and customs of their juvenile populations, their religious observances, their opportunities of education, their games and feasts and ceremonies, as also their mode of dress or undress. We note that "Fiammetta" and "Carita" are from the same model, owing, no doubt, to the exigencies of the number of illustrations offered. The book is handsomely bound in blue and gold.

Homes and their Decoration. By Lillie Hamilton French. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1903.

A work like this appeals to women of all classes and of every variety of fortune, from the wife of the millionaire who can bring precious marbles and wood carvings from old Italian palaces and priceless treasures of applied art for the decoration of her luxurious dwelling, as also to the struggling helpmate of the overworked Government clerk, who can have recourse only to the carpenter, cheap fabrics, and casually acquired furniture for the making of a home. Miss French offers suggestions and advice to all; she writes as one in authority, referring to a long experience of correspondence on this subject with bewildered matrons in every part of the United States and Canada and with colonists abroad. She treats at length of every detail of household arrangement, from the reception rooms of the wealthy to their servants' sleeping-rooms and kitchen. The only part of the house left unmentioned is the nursery, which seems a remarkable lapse, now that

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so much attention is given to the early education of the young through their surroundings, and considering the important part they play in family life.

The making of a home is certainly more of an instinct than a talent to be acquired from books or teaching of any kind. It is not given to every one to bring a sense of harmony into their house any more than into their lives; nor do riches help much here, for the meaning of a home comes from the fitness of the surroundings to the individuality, associations, and history of its inmates; and its dearest possessions are generally an inheritance from the past rather than a selection of costly furniture. We have all known many examples of the inefficiency of good bric-à-brac and the best upholstery to give an appearance of comfort, and Miss French has much to say as to the ineptitude of women of wealth to meet the daily requirements of life in the arrangement of their homes and in the exercise of hospitality. She insists that every woman of whatever station should know how to give her rooms a look of cheerfulness and welcome to the entering guest, and that the capacity to achieve this proves the degree of culture attained by quick sympathy for the requirements of others. Miss French is rather exorbitant in her demands on hostesses in general: she even expects them to furnish the guest chamber with the medicines which may come into request during a short visit. With due regard to American hospitality, which is proverbial, this is more than could be looked for.

Innumerable descriptions of the special arrangement of certain rooms are given, which satisfy this writer's taste, accompanied by full-page illustrations, while the text is interspersed throughout by pen-and-ink sketches of every imaginable object of different degrees of interest and decorative value. We should say that Miss French's proclivities are in favor of elaborate furnishing; her suggested arrangements are often very complicated. We note that she not infrequently commends the disguising of one material to look like another, as, for instance, on page 63, where enamel paint is made to look like red brick. On another occasion it is oak furniture (which she considers inadmissible) that must be transformed by white paint. It has always been one of the principles of good decoration to let things be what they are, not to try to get iron to look like wood, or brick like stone, but to obtain from each material by proper treatment the effects it is capable of. But Miss French is full of fads and prejudices, notwithstanding the wide range of her enthusiasms; she gives lists of objects indispensable and lists of objects undesirable, which will seem a little surprising. Her advice to keep precious books in cases enclosed with glass is contrary to the latest convictions of bibliophiles, who find that open bookcases allowing the air to circulate are the safest.

The Mediæval Stage. By E. K. Chambers. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1903. 2 vols.

In spite of all the books on the subject, the history of one of the greatest products of human genius, the Elizabethan drama, has never yet been adequately written. But the work of criticism and preparation is going valiantly forward; and in the meantime scholarship is concerning itself, quite justly no doubt, mainly with questions of genesis and origins. We have here a discussion of origins which is of formidable learning, and quite the best thing of its kind that has yet been done in English. The title of the work has the merit of brevity, but is a little misleading. The literary side of the mediæval drama is almost totally neglected, the stage itself is only incidentally discussed, the dramatic product of England is the centre of attention to the practical exclusion of that of other lands, at least from the point where the religious drama begins to nationalize itself, and the whole of the first (and larger) volume is taken up with things which previous historians have scarcely regarded as part of the material of drama at all. This volume is, indeed, an account of mediæval minstrelsy and of the so-called "Folk Drama"—that is, of the mediæval customs of festivals and pageantry studied in their origins and development as expressions of the mimetic instinct of the folk. Mr. Chambers is an eager folklorist, and this volume is essentially an elaborate study in folklore. The culture-historical and social background is investigated on an adequate scale. One feels that the impulse of the modern method and movement in historical studies is at last communicating itself to literary history, even as studied in England.

We feel, too, that the author has been on the whole well advised in his self-imposed limitations, and has within these made an important contribution to learning. It is true that the first volume advances various views which at best are speculative and uncertain, and contains much material which seems excessively remote from the subject. It is true that the connection between folk "drama" and literary drama is somewhat obscurely presented. It is true, perhaps, that the first half of volume ii., dealing with the Religious Drama, makes no essential advance upon the treatment of Creizenach and other authorities, while the second half (the Appendices) reprints, along with much that is new or inaccessible, a portion that was already well known to scholars. Nevertheless, the work as a whole is a work of solid erudition, and presents a mass of valuable material, sidelights, and suggestions. It now remains open for Professor Manly, in the long-expected third volume of his 'Specimens of the Pre-Shaksperean Drama,' to complete the treatment of the mediæval English drama on its literary side. The public would then have an adequate equivalent of a complete history of the subject, embodying the results of a century of research and the conclusions of recent scholarship. If this could be supplemented by a translation of Creizenach's 'Geschichte des neueren Dramas,' the needs of the English-reading public would be sufficiently served until the great historian of the drama shall appear.

The author's range of inclusion is dictated by his conception of the dramatic, of what constitutes drama in its germs and essential principle. Not dialogue by itself, of course, and so nothing in Anglo-Saxon literature, in spite of its frequent use of dialogue form, is drama; and not the Middle English 'Harrowing of Hell' and similar *estrifs* and *débats*. But it is dialogue combined with impersonation, in more than a single rôle; and of this combination the manifestations are traced through various ramifications into divers forms and conclusions. The old question of the mediæval minstrel and his relation to and inheritance from his forebears, the *mimus* and the *scôp*, is debated afresh. The evidence adduced still remains inconclusive, and the author is forced to content himself with the probability that the *mimus*, who disappears as a player of farces in the seventh century, and his like, who reappeared in the fifteenth century playing farces, must in the interval have been practising the rudiments of the art of acting, and that something rudimentarily dramatic must have persevered through all this time. The question still remains open.

The plain people who have not followed the vagaries of recent folklorists will be surprised to learn of the latest theory, here presented, of the origin of certain familiar but ancient and venerable sports. Like the mediæval drama, they arose from ritual. As in the villages of India to-day, so in the village communities of our Germanic ancestors, certain rites and sacrifices were necessary for the fertility of the fields. Fortunate was the man or the company of men who could secure a portion of the sacrificial beast, or the sacrificial grain to bury under his furrow. So it comes that, in the primitive game of football, "the ball is nothing else than the head of the sacrificial beast, and it is the endeavor of each player to get it into his own possession, or, if sides are taken, to get it over a particular boundary." The author is not unaware of the humor of this explanation. A moment later we are told that "if Golf belongs to the present category, it is a case in which the endeavor seems to be actually to bury the ball." Here certainly is a game which in the hands of many hierophants tends to revert to its primitive function! Similarly, the traditional hood of the mediæval fools and jesters "was originally a sophistication of a more primitive headdress, namely, the actual head of a sacrificial animal worn by the worshipper at the New Year festival."

The treatment of the actual history of the religious drama itself, from its origin in the liturgy to the beginnings of its transformation under the influence of humanism, is reasonably brief—some 225 pages. But nowhere else in English has the process of this evolution been so clearly displayed. Here for the first time is sufficient evidence adduced to make the modern reader understand and realize the astonishing variety and abundance of dramatic performances in mediæval England. Centuries before Shakspere's day the nation had been trained to the habit of spectacle and mimetic entertainment. The chief contribution of the Renaissance, after all, was that of literary consciousness and of literary form.

The History of the Peninsular War. By Charles Oman. Vol. II. With maps, plans, and illustrations. Henry Frowde. 1903.

Mr. Oman's 'History of the Peninsular War' is carried rapidly forward by a second volume, which surpasses its predecessor in bulk, although it is confined to the events of 1809, and even closes with September of that year. It will be remembered that the motive of this work is found in the short-

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comings of Napier and in the recent publication of valuable materials. Napier, with all his knowledge of the war and his literary brilliance, admired Napoleon too much. As for the documents which have been made available since his day, there can be no doubt that they justify a fresh consideration of Peninsular campaigning. Mr. Oman writes with a great command of statistical detail, and his accumulation of data has been supplemented by a special study of topography. Thus, in the present volume, he puts a different face on Wellesley's passage of the Douro by bringing out the fact that the river at Oporto runs between cliffs nearly two hundred feet high. Here, the English operations were attended by the most extraordinary good fortune, for the French did not discover the presence of the enemy until an hour after the first troops had made good their crossing. Napier at this juncture is quite unsatisfactory, offering no adequate explanation of Wellesley's *tour de force*. Mr. Oman supplies a photograph which clears matters up at once by showing the remarkable character of the ground. No Frenchman who was not on the very edge of the cliff could have seen what was happening on the surface of the stream below. To be sure, Soult was careless, but the precise nature of his carelessness can be explained only by the description of a very peculiar locality.

The campaign of 1809 was marked at the outset by such singular complexity that it can hardly be called a campaign at all until the month of July. Napoleon, hastening from Spain to direct the politics and war which culminated at Wagram, left the most astonishing directions to his generals. Take, for example, the burden laid upon Soult. The unfortunate Duke of Dalmatia was bidden in midwinter "to expel the English, to pacify Galicia, to take Oporto and to march on Lisbon"—all within a time limit of twenty-three days. But campaigning in the Peninsula bore little resemblance to campaigning on the Danube; the war soon lost its unity, and by May six sets of operations were simultaneously in progress. These, Mr. Oman points out, were not part of one general scheme of strategy, but quite disconnected. In northern Portugal, Soult opposed Wellesley; and in Aragon, Suchet opposed Blake. Victor and Cuesta contended for Estramadura; Sebastiani and Venegas for La Mancha. Ney invaded the Asturias, and Saint Cyr sought to conquer Catalonia.

Out of such chaos some sort of military order was evolved during the summer by Wellesley's plan to combine with the Spaniards for a march upon Madrid. The French armies drew together to frustrate this movement, and the dénouement was Talavera, the central battle of 1809 in the Peninsula, as Wagram was in the operations about Vienna. To describe the fighting about the Cerro de Medellin would be quite impossible within our limits, but it is interesting to observe that it justified in a striking manner Wellesley's belief that the line could beat the column. This, Mr. Oman selects as the groundwork of his tactics, and the idea was one which he had seized even when he was in India. The honors of Talavera, however, were fairly shared between general and troops, for the French could not have been beaten without the exceptional steadiness of the British foot commanded by Sherbrooke and Mackenzie. In point of casualties, Talavera can be paralled only by Albuera, one of the British divisions being so smitten that nearly two-fifths of the men were incapacitated. Wellesley failed to capture Madrid, but Soult also failed to surround him and Cuesta. In spite of the carnage, Talavera left the situation much as it had been before. Though a personal triumph for Wellesley, it still left Napoleon in possession of opportunities for offensive fighting.

Mr. Oman is particularly concerned to revise the *facts* of the Peninsular War, but his main motive does not deter him from pausing to make a generalization or to portray an individual. It was inevitable that at some time he should pronounce an opinion upon the qualities of Wellington. He does not wait till the conclusion of his last volume, but turns away from the spring-campaign of 1809 to discriminate between the virtues and shortcomings of the Commander-in-Chief. On the whole, the verdict is a severe one. To be sure, Mr. Oman praises "Wellesley's extraordinary ability" and illustrates it by adequate examples; but at this time of day there is no novelty in such a view. The striking circumstance is, that an ardent admirer of Wellesley's capacity should possess a low opinion of his heart. The Duke's correspondence with Lady Burghersh came out in time to be given its due weight, yet, notwithstanding all proof of kindness towards personal and family friends, Mr. Oman condemns Wellington for the callousness which he displayed toward troops and officers. The facts in question affect one's judgment of him as a warrior, and weigh more heavily than any charge of tactical faults. A general who does not possess the affection as well as the fear of his troops, cannot get out of them the full measure of their fighting power. This, in Mr. Oman's eyes, was Wellington's chief limitation. In conversation with Lord Stanhope, he called the rank and file the scum of the earth, and said that English soldiers were fellows who enlisted for drink.

"His notions of discipline," says Mr. Oman, "were worthy of one of the drill sergeants of Frederick the Great. 'I have no idea of any great effect being produced on British soldiers,' he once said before a Royal Commission, 'by anything but the fear of immediate corporal punishment.' Flogging was the one remedy for all evils, and he declared that it was absolutely impossible to manage the army without it. For any idea of appealing to the men's better feeling, or moving them by sentiment, he had the greatest contempt."

Mr. Oman's 'Peninsular War' has passed well beyond the initial stage, and bids fair to realize the aims which the author outlined in the preface to his first volume.

Ancient Athens. By Ernest A. Gardner. Macmillan. 1903.

The constant excavation and research which has been going on in the city of Athens and its environs, especially within the last quarter of a century, has cleared up many questions in archæology while necessarily raising some new ones. An accurate and scientific résumé of these results in English has been a growing desideratum; and this is now satisfactorily filled by Professor Gardner's 'Ancient Athens,' a handsome volume illustrated with many photogravures, and presenting, like Mau's 'Pompeii,' something of a holiday aspect. The illustrations are beautifully clear, and chosen with great taste, subject only to the necessary limitations of views which include wide spaces within a brief compass. Two serviceable maps of the city are added, one of which marks in detail the author's scheme of the route of Pausanias.

The contents include dissertations on the natural features and water supply, the ancient walls, the Acropolis before and after the Persian wars, the city in the classic period and in Hellenistic times, the most important temples, and the theatres. A separate chapter is given to each of the following topics: The Parthenon, the Ceramicus, the Piræus, the route of Pausanias, and the subject of Early Attic Art. The result is a most attractive and at the same time scientific handbook of the antiquities of Athens, designed, perhaps, primarily for the student of classical antiquity, but well fitted also for the purposes of the art student, or of the intelligent amateur in art and architecture, who likes to be certain of his facts. Even as a guide-book, there is no impropriety in recommending to the traveller captivated by the beauty of Athens this summary so luminous, accurate, and impartial by one whose position as director of the British School gave him every opportunity to master his subject, and whose handbook on Greek Sculpture proved his fitness for such studies. Mr. Gardner's general attitude is highly impartial and dispassionate; if he has a bias, it is slightly conservative. But he states facts and conflicting theories with great fairness, and adds his own conclusion without the slightest dogmatism. He does not accept Dörpfeld's identification of Calirrhoë, nor his well-known views on the Greek stage, nor his opinion that the early temple of Athena was restored after the Persian invasion. He will not positively decide whether the "Theseum" is a temple of Hephæstus or of Heracles; as to the topography of the harbors, he follows Leake, in the main, recently supported by the investigations of Angelopoulos. Professor Gardner's method has the great merit of helping the reader to form judgments for himself; that being the case, a greater number of references to sources and authorities might have been desirable. His delicate taste in art is evinced in many places, *e. g.*, in the remarks (p. 509) on the impossibility of any genuine restoration of the noblest and most refined architecture.

The proof-reading of this work was done in London, and the printing in this country, and hence a few blemishes. The most serious we have noticed is the occurrence of "southwest" (p. 149) for southeast, where a glance at the author's map reveals the printer's error. The Greek will also bear revision in a few places. There will be an opportunity for this in the work-a-day edition which is likely soon to be demanded.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, Wilbur. Money and Credit. New York: The Grafton Press.

Allen, Anne Story. Merry Hearts: The Adventures of Two Bachelor Maids. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 75c. net.

Ashley, W. J. The Tariff Problem. London: P. S. King & Son.

Austin, Mary. The Land of Little Rain. Illustrated. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2 net.

Balzac, Honoré de. (In Little French Masterpieces.) Introduction by Ferdinand Brunetière. Translation by George Burnham Ives. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.

Bede's Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation. (The Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.

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Brady, Cyrus Townsend. Tittlebat Titmouse: Abridged from Dr. Samuel Warren's Ten Thousand a Year. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
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